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PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA

1932-1937

By JOHN SARGENT, M.A.,

Educational Commissioner with the Government of India

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PREFACE.

This Review deals with the progress of education in British India during the five years' period from the 1st April 1932 to the 31st March 1937. It follows generally the plan of the previous Review and is mainly based on the provincial educational reports which are the work of the following officers:—

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Ajmer-Merwara .. .	
Baluchistan .. .	Mr. Leitch WILSON, M.A.

I am much indebted to these officers whose valuable reports have been freely used in compiling this Review, sometimes without acknowledgment. My gratitude is also due to the authorities of the universities in India who have furnished special reports which I have used in the chapter on university education. I am also grateful to the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Director of Military Training, the Inspector General of Forests, the Vice-Chairman, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research and to others who have supplied information on the educational aspects of the subjects dealt with by them.

My indebtedness to the above and to all others who have assisted in the compilation of this report is much increased by the fact that it deals with a period prior to my taking up my duties as Educational Commissioner in India and I have consequently been much more dependent than my predecessors,

on the assistance of others. For the same reason I have confined myself almost entirely to the arrangement of the matter supplied and to verbal editing where required. I have made no attempt in the Report to examine critically any of the opinions quoted or the hopes and fears expressed. Some apology is perhaps needed for the appearance of the word 'vernacular' in various connections in this survey. Although there is now general agreement that its use should be avoided it was in common use during the quinquennium under review. Moreover even now no alternatives, which are both intelligible and concise have yet been found for such expressions as vernacular or anglo-vernacular schools, etc.

I cannot help feeling that the practical value of a survey of this kind would be substantially enhanced if the interval of time between its publication and the period to which it relates could be reduced to a minimum. The task of collecting and collating the facts and figures of educational development over so vast a field as India is not one which can be completed in a month or two under any circumstance, but with full consciousness of the difficulties involved I trust that whoever is responsible for the next quinquennial review will take such steps as are possible to expedite its issue.

Finally I have to record with great regret that Mr. Abdus Salam, Secretary of the Central Advisory Board of Education, who compiled the first draft of this report with his usual conscientious care, died suddenly just after his portion of the work was completed.

JOHN SARGENT,
*Educational Commissioner
with the Government of India.*

SIMLA :

The 20th July 1939.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA 1932—37

CHAPTER I.

MAIN FEATURES OF THE QUINQUENNium.

(i) Financial depression.

The end of the quinquennium under review (1932-37) marks the close of the period of the first reformed constitution introduced in the provinces in 1921 and the beginning of an era of provincial autonomy in India. It was unfortunate that the introduction of the reformed constitution in 1921, when Indian education in the provinces was placed under the control of a Minister responsible to the Legislature, coincided with a period of financial stress.

2. In spite of this the Review of 1922-27, which recorded the events of the early period of the reformed constitution, was able to strike an optimistic note in regard to the future :—

"The post-war economic distress has gradually disappeared and the consequent gradual financial improvement has been reflected in the accelerated rate of progress in the expansion of education. The non-cooperation movement also, which cast a shadow over the closing years of the last quinquennium, had become almost a spent force by the end of 1922, and much of the ground that had been lost between 1920 and 1922 was regained during the following year. A period, which has witnessed great political changes, some economic improvement and the gradual cessation of non-cooperation activities, has also witnessed an exceptionally large increase in the numbers of educational institutions and of scholars under instruction, the undertaking of many new educational ventures and the development and fruition of schemes initiated in the previous quinquennium¹.—The progress of education has, on the whole, been very satisfactory and bids fair for the future.—The foundations of further advance under new conditions in the years to come have been laid."²

3. The subsequent Review of 1927-32 did not confirm these expectations. Instead, "economic distress, far exceeding in magnitude and intensity even that experienced in the post-war years, has intervened ; expenditure has been cut down in all directions ; the pace of expansion has been retarded ; political life has been disturbed ; communal bitterness has been accentuated."³

4. Although the situation during the quinquennium under review was not so gloomy as that depicted in the last Review, serious causes for anxiety still remain.

The Bengal Report for instance states that "the most evident result of this financial stringency has been that the province no longer occupies the position it had in the education world of India before the inauguration of the Reforms."⁴

¹ 9th Q. R., page 1. ² 9th Q. R., page 14. ³ 10th Q. R., page 1. ⁴ Bengal, page 2.

The Bengal Government's resolution on education in 1935 also observes that "the result for education has been disastrous. What was bad has become worse and what was tolerable has in many instances become bad. Improvements long meditated and long overdue had to be postponed indefinitely, and instead of even normal progress, there was at many points a visible retrogression."¹

The Bombay Report records that "the outstanding feature of the quinquennium under review has undoubtedly been financial stringency. In every year of the period a substantial cut has been made in the allotment for education, and this has hung like a millstone round the neck of the department and handicapped all educational activity."²

In the same strain, the United Provinces report that economic depression has affected the progress of education in the province, and "consolidation rather than extension has been the watchword of the period under review."³ The Punjab Government also observe that "the existing financial stringency and economic depression have had unfavourable repercussions on the enrolment and number of schools."⁴

5. It is, however, gratifying to find that in spite of financial stringency, it has been possible in many places to maintain if not to extend the existing facilities for education. In Madras, "measures of retrenchment were so designed as not to cause any curtailment of the facilities for education already available."⁵ In Bombay, "by strict economies, by sticking to essentials and by attempting to centralise as far as possible it has been possible not merely to carry on but actually to show some expansion and progress."⁶ In other provinces also, despite financial stress, some progress is recorded.

6. It is also satisfactory to note that the general economic depression appears to be gradually decreasing and the policy of retrenchment introduced for economic reasons is being gradually relaxed in some provinces. For example, in Madras "the cut of 3·5 per cent. imposed at the end of the previous quinquennium on educational grants to aided institutions and subsidies to local bodies was reduced to 2 per cent. in 1932-33 and was removed altogether in 1933-34. The embargo placed on the admission of new schemes for building and equipment grants was withdrawn in 1934-35."⁷ Burma also reports that "at the beginning of the year 1935-36 the clouds of depression began to rise and the last two years of the quinquennium were a period of survey with a view to reconstruction and reorganization. Some temporary repairs have already been effected."⁸ These are hopeful signs.

(ii) Reorganization in education.

7. A further outcome of these years of depression has been the emergence of a widely spread dissatisfaction with the present system of education. There appears to be a consensus of opinion that the system is not practical enough, not sufficiently in touch with the child's environment and experience and not

¹ Bengal, page 2.

² Bombay, page 6.

³ United Provinces, page 1.

⁴ Punjab, page 1 (Government Resolution).

⁵ Madras, page 1 (Government Resolution).

⁶ Bombay, page 6.

⁷ Madras, page 2.

⁸ Burma, page 1.

adequately related to the needs of later life. Secondary education in particular is regarded as too academic and as suffering from a lack of variety. Probably at no period in India's history has there been a livelier interest in and concern for the future of education than at the present moment.

8. Report after report has also referred to the unfortunate tendency of secondary education to accentuate the drift of unsuitable pupils towards higher literary education; to the wastage in primary schools which retards progress towards the attainment of literacy; to the lack of control by provincial Governments over the educational activities of local bodies; to the absence of co-ordination in educational activities; and to shortcomings in the existing system. All these are deeply rooted in the past and cannot be eradicated at once. But it is satisfactory to observe that India generally is becoming alive to these defects and is seriously considering the question of educational reconstruction.

9. The Third Conference of Indian Universities, which was convened in Delhi in March 1934, suggested a radical readjustment of the present system in schools in such a way that a large number of pupils should be diverted at the completion of the secondary course either to occupations or to separate vocational institutions. The recent Punjab University Committee represented that a thorough overhauling of the education given at school is an essential preliminary to the improvement of university teaching. The Government of the United Provinces published an important resolution on the reorganization of secondary education and emphasised that "the value of university education is impaired by the presence in universities of a large number of students who are unfit for higher literary or scientific education; that these students cannot hope to obtain employment which would justify the expense of their education and that the only feasible remedy is to divert them to practical pursuits in the pre-university stage." The Bengal Government also have published a comprehensive scheme of educational reconstruction.

10. During the quinquennium, a committee popularly known as the Sapru Committee from the name of its distinguished chairman, was appointed to investigate the question of unemployment among educated young men and to suggest practical ways and means for reducing the same. Its report contains valuable suggestions for the reorganization of education. The Government of the United Provinces have appointed another committee representative of all interests under the same distinguished chairman to report on the steps necessary to bring into effect that reorganization of secondary education which all now recognise as essential. The Vernacular and Vocational Education Reorganization Committee, Burma, has made an admirable survey of the whole field of education in the province and has made far-reaching proposals for reconstruction. The Unemployment Committee, Bihar, has also made valuable recommendations about educational reorganization in its relation to unemployment. The Central Provinces Educational Reconstruction and Vocational Education Committee has also explored the possibilities of educational reconstruction. In Assam, a provincial Conference was convened at Shillong to discuss the same problem.

11. The Central Advisory Board of Education has been revived and is engaged in advising the Central and Provincial Governments as to the lines in which educational reorganization should follow. On its recommendation, the Government of India brought out two educational experts from England, Mr. A. Abbott, formerly Chief Inspector of Technical Schools and Mr. S. H. Wood, Director of Intelligence, Board of Education, to advise on the problems of educational reorganization and vocational education, and their valuable report was published in 1937. (a)

12. There has thus been a good deal of reconnaissance, and the major defects of the present educational system have been located. There seems to be general agreement that the outstanding need is to place the whole system, in its present state admittedly topheavy, on a really firm and stable basis. This means a determined attack on the vast problem of universal primary education. The first step therefore is to plan this attack in the light of local conditions and the resources available, and the second is to translate it into action. Those who believe that India's future destinies will be largely determined by the education which is provided today for the citizens of tomorrow will need little persuading as to the urgency of this problem.

(iii) *Schools and pupils.*

The table below gives the total number of institutions and pupils reading in them.

TABLE I.

Total number of institutions (recognised and unrecognised) and pupils.

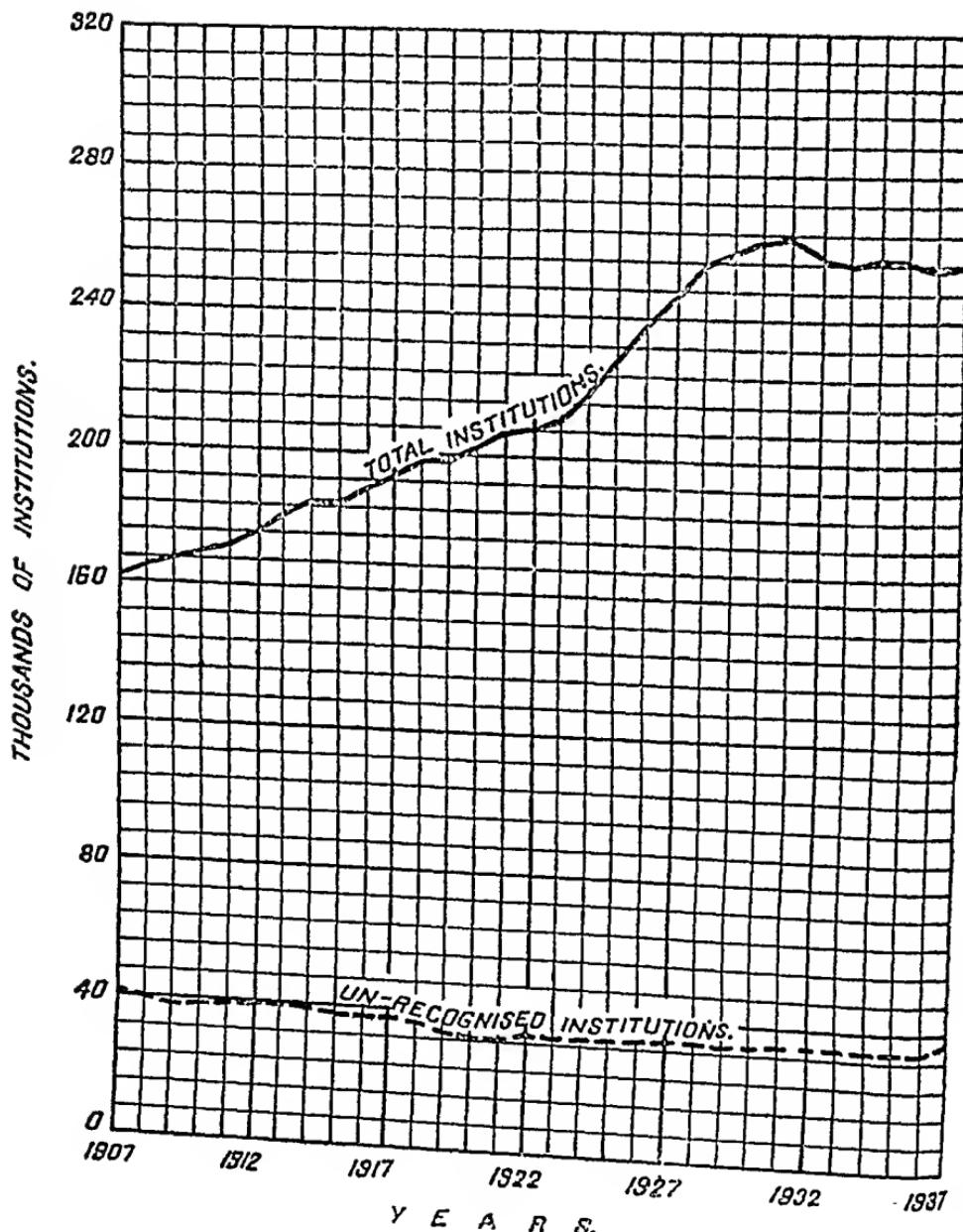
		1922.	1927.	1932.	1937.
Institutions	..	208,106	246,264	257,792	255,709
<i>Increase</i>	+38,158	+11,528	-2,083
Pupils	..	8,381,350	11,157,496	12,766,537	14,146,038
<i>Increase</i>	+2,776,146	+1,609,041	+1,379,501

These figures indicate that the continued financial depression has adversely affected the pace of expansion. In 1927, there was an increase of 38,158 institutions with an additional enrolment of 2,776,146. In 1932 the corresponding figures were 11,528 and 1,609,041. In 1937, there was actually a decrease of 2,083 institutions. As, however, the number of pupils rose by 1,379,501, it is to be hoped that the schools which have disappeared were the smaller and less efficient ones.

(a) *Vide page 27 also.*

FIG. I.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN BRITISH INDIA.



14. The table below shows how the number of institutions and their enrolment have fluctuated during the present quinquennium.

TABLE II.
Number of institutions and pupils during 1932-37.

Year.			Institutions.	Pupils.
1931-32	257,792	12,766,537
1932-33	255,347	12,853,532
1933-34	256,724	13,172,890
1934-35	256,263	13,506,869
1935-36	254,211	13,816,149
1936-37	255,709	14,146,038

There was a gradual increase in the number of institutions from 1926-27 to the beginning of 1931-32 when an annual increase of between two and three thousand schools was suddenly replaced by an actual decrease of twice that amount. There was a further decrease of 2,445 in the number of institutions in 1932-33. Since then the number has practically remained stationary with slight variations in each subsequent year.

But in spite of a reduction in the number of institutions, there has been an annual increase of about 3 lakhs of pupils during each of the year since 1932-33. This indicates that the development of the better schools has outpaced the elimination of weaker and inefficient schools. It further points to the wholesome reaction in favour of the policy of concentration and consolidation of schools which has been adopted in several provinces.

15. The tables below give the figures of recognised and unrecognised educational institutions separately.

TABLE III.
Total number of recognised institutions and their enrolment.

	1922.	1927.	1932.	1937.
Recognised institutions	173,311	211,048	222,804	218,789
Increase	+37,737	+11,756
Pupils	7,742,225	11,529,350	12,122,466	13,434,382
Increase	+2,787,025	+593,116
				+1,311,916

There has been a slackening in the rate of expansion in almost all the provinces. In three provinces, viz., Madras, the United Provinces and the Punjab, there has been an actual decrease in the number of schools.

In Madras, the reduction in the number of institutions is accounted for partly by the transfer to the new province of Orissa of a number of schools and partly to the campaign recently instituted against uneconomic, superfluous and inefficient elementary schools which has resulted in the weeding out of a good many unsatisfactory schools. In fact, the transfer of a number of institutions to the newly formed province of Orissa has materially affected the figures for Madras, and this must be borne in mind when making any comparison with previous years.

In the United Provinces also, the decrease in the number of schools is attributed to the elimination of small and uneconomical district board schools, and it is stated that their closure has not had the effect of reducing the number of pupils under instruction.

The Punjab also reports that the drop in the number of recognised schools is "due to the closure, and reduction in status of a large number of uneconomical and unsuccessful lower middle schools and to the abolition of unnecessary and wasteful adult schools."¹

It will be seen that all the three provinces, in which a decrease has occurred, attribute it to the same satisfactory cause and there is therefore no reason for anxiety.

17. The following table classifies institutions according to management.

¹ Punjab, page 6.

TABLE VI.
Institutions classified according to management.

FIG. 2.

TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS UNDER INSTRUCTION IN INDIA.

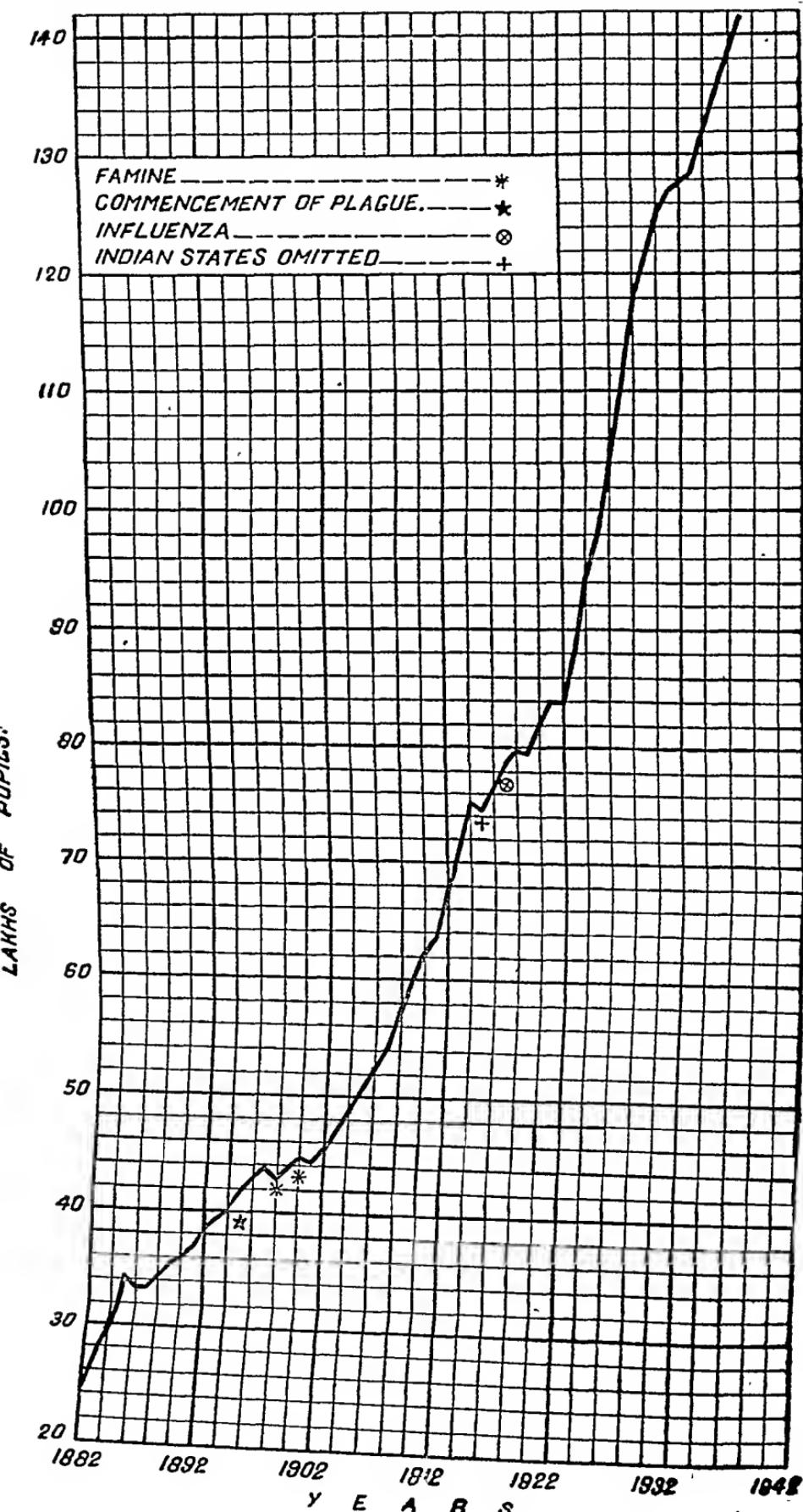


TABLE VIII.

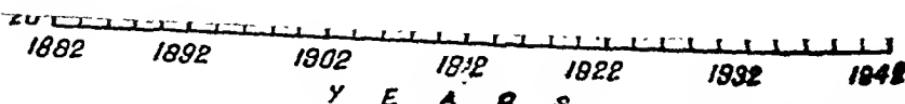
Total number of pupils in all institutions, by provinces.

Province.	1927.	1932.	1937.	Increase between 1932-37.	Increase between 1927-37.
Madras	2,523,188	2,924,882	3,181,871	256,989	658,683
Bombay	1,151,428	1,335,517	1,335,869	*	*
Bengal	2,313,380	2,783,225	3,205,896	422,671	862,516
United Provinces	1,349,401	1,517,088	1,640,169	131,181	299,768
Punjab	1,182,736	1,333,567	1,285,682	-47,885	102,910
Burma	645,072	727,406	756,461	29,058	110,492
Bihar	1,108,491	1,094,823	1,007,408	*	*
Central Provinces and Berar	399,289	459,042	490,831	39,892	100,545
Assam	288,620	372,318	459,878	87,560	171,238
North-West Frontier Province	69,718	88,400	98,889	10,420	29,171
Sind	*	*	102,897	*	*
Orissa	*	*	331,088	*	*
Centrally Administered Areas	95,270	128,370	141,073	12,703	45,803
British India ..	11,157,496	12,760,537	14,146,038	1,379,501	2,088,542

*In 1926-27 and 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar, while in 1936-37 they were constituted into separate provinces. Hence no comparison has been made.

19. It is surprising that the Punjab, which recorded an increase of over 1½ lakhs of pupils during the previous quinquennium, shows a decrease of about 48,000 in the number of pupils during the present quinquennium. It is, however, noticeable that the numerical retrogression of the first three years of the quinquennium, which amounted to a fall of 65,000 in the aggregate, has been counteracted by a steady increase during the last two years. The Punjab report ascribes the numerical decline to a number of causes: "The fall in the enrolment of special schools, which is due to the closure of wasteful adult schools, should not give any cause for perturbation. In the primary schools the enrolment has decreased mainly because of the prevalence of economic depression in rural areas, retrenchment in local body budgets and partly due to the closure of unnecessary schools, to efforts at consolidation and concentration, stricter vigilance over regularity of attendance and genuineness of enrolment and to insistence on an even and well regulated flow of class promotions. In the secondary schools the fall is accounted for by financial stringency and the closure or reduction of a number of unnecessary lower middle schools to the primary status for lack of adequate enrolment."¹

¹ Punjab, page 8.



20. The figures showing the distribution of pupils between the several stages of education are of interest.

TABLE IX.
Pupils according to stages of instruction.

Stage.	1927.	1932.	1937.	Increase between 1927-32.	Increase between 1932-37.
Collegiate stage—					
Arts and Science ..	70,428	79,139	95,945	8,711	16,806
Professional ..	17,951	18,392	21,311	441	2,919
High stage ..	277,970	344,758	432,038	66,788	87,280
Middle stage ..	713,939	980,514	1,142,254	266,575	161,740
Primary stage ..	9,120,458	10,427,980	11,465,709	1,307,522	1,037,729
Special institutions ..	328,604	271,094	276,986	—57,510	5,892
Unrecognised institutions ..	628,146	644,071	711,656	15,925	67,585
Total ..	11,157,496	12,766,537*	14,146,038†	1,609,041	1,379,501

*Includes 589 pupils who were unclassified.

†Includes 139 pupils reading purely classics.

There has been an all round increase in all stages of education. This may be regarded as satisfactory in view of the economic depression of the time.

21. The following table illustrates the advance made by each community.

TABLE X.
Enrolment according to race or creed.

Community.	1927.	1932.	1937.	Increase between 1927-32.	Increase between 1932-37.
Anglo-Indians and Europeans.	47,292	48,801	50,507	1,509	1,706
Indian Christians ..	363,996	432,452	506,847	68,456	74,395
Hindus ..	7,046,745	7,832,512	8,829,084	785,767	996,572
Muslims ..	2,821,162	3,408,758	3,688,990	587,596	280,232
Buddhists ..	575,276	642,306	663,270	67,030	20,964
Parsis ..	19,529	20,399	21,499	870	1,100
Sikhs ..	154,379	190,336	193,736	35,957	3,400
Others ..	128,304	189,339	191,603	61,035	2,264
Total (a) ..	11,157,496*	12,766,537*	14,146,038*	1,609,041	1,379,501

(a) Total taken from the all-India tables.

*Includes pupils (313 in 1927, 1,634 in 1932 and 4 girls in 1937) who were not classified according to race or creed.

There is little variation in the figures for Anglo-Indian and European and Parsi communities as the vast majority of their children are already at school.

The Hindus and Indian Christians have made appreciable progress during the quinquennium.

The rate of progress has been considerably slowed down in the case of the Muslims, Buddhists and Sikhs. This temporary set-back is probably due to financial depression.

22. The figures showing the percentage of the total population which is receiving instruction in schools and colleges provide a valuable test of progress. The tables below illustrate the rate of advance during the last three quinquennia.

TABLE XI.

Percentage of total population receiving instruction in recognised institutions, by sexes.

—	1922.	1927.	1932.	1937.
Percentage of males	5·04	6·91	6·96	7·45
Percentage of females	1·12	1·46	1·80	2·28
Percentage of total	3·13	4·26	4·46	4·94

TABLE XII.

Percentage of total population receiving instruction in all institutions (recognised and unrecognised), by sexes.

—	1922.	1927.	1932.	1937.
Percentage of males	5·49	7·33	7·33	7·86
Percentage of females	1·18	1·53	1·89	2·38
Percentage of total	3·39	4·51	4·70	5·20

The percentage of male pupils to male population increased from 7·33 in 1932 to 7·86 in 1937 and that of female pupils from 1·89 to 2·38. Consequently, the percentage of the total number of pupils, both males and females, increased from 4·70 to 5·20.

The total population on which these percentages for 1932 and 1937 have been calculated is that of 1931 census. Recent calculations on the basis of this census have shown that the percentage of children of educable age (i.e., between the ages of 6 and 11 years) to the total population is approximately 12 per cent. As stated in the United Provinces Report, "at the most only 15 per cent. of the population will under the most favourable conditions be attending schools of all grades." ¹ In the whole of British India the percentage of pupils attending all types of schools to the total population is 5·2 only. There is thus much leeway to be made up.

The provincial figures showing the percentage of population receiving instruction in (a) recognised institutions and (b) in all institutions, unrecognised as well as recognised, are given in the tables below.

TABLE XIII.

Percentage of total population receiving instruction in recognised institutions, by provinces.

Province.	1922.	1927.	1932.	1937.
Madras	4·1	5·77	6·16	7·1
Bombay	4·6	5·77	5·95	7·25
Bengal	3·9	4·90	5·43	6·27
United Provinces	2·1	2·82	3·01	3·27
Punjab	2·7	5·25	5·09	4·83
Burma	2·6	3·30	3·58	3·72
Bihar	2·2	3·13	3·58	2·91
Central Provinces and Berar	2·4	2·81	2·90	3·12
Assam	2·7	3·56	4·04	4·9
North-West Frontier Province	2·2	2·80	3·46	3·9
Sind	*	*	*	4·7
Orissa	*	*	*	3·9
Coorg	5·2	5·40	6·2	7·07
Delhi	3·1	5·00	6·7	7·5
Ajmer-Merwara	2·1	2·50	3·8	4·4
Baluchistan	1·0	1·30	1·6	1·2
Bangalore	10·2	11·30	12·3	13·7
Other Administered Areas	7·30	9·3	12·1
British India	3·1	4·3	4·5	4·9

* Sind was included in Bombay, and Orissa in Bihar, upto the 31st March 1936.

¹ U.P., page 8.

TABLE XIV.

Percentage of total population receiving instruction in all institutions (recognised and unrecognised), by provinces.

Province.		1922.	1927.	1932.	1937.
Madras	..	4.3	5.96	6.25	7.2
Bombay	..	5.0	5.95	5.11	7.46
Bengal	..	4.0	5.02	5.55	6.39
United Provinces	..	2.3	2.97	3.13	3.4
Punjab	..	3.0	5.71	5.61	5.45
Burma	..	4.3	4.89	4.28	5.16
Bihar	..	2.4	3.26	2.90	3.11
Central Provinces and Berar	..	2.4	2.86	2.96	3.22
Assam	..	2.8	3.70	4.32	5.3
North-West Frontier Province	..	2.3	3.00	3.60	4.1
Sind	..	*	*	*	5.0
Orissa	..	*	*	*	4.1
Coorg	..	5.3	5.6	6.4	7.48
Delhi	..	4.0	5.5	7.0	8.1
Ajmer-Merwara	..	3.1	3.3	4.3	5.04
Baluchistan	..	1.7	2.1	2.2	1.6
Bangalore	..	10.4	12.0	12.5	14.0
Other Administered Areas	8.0	10.0	12.5
British India	..	3.4	4.5	4.7	5.2

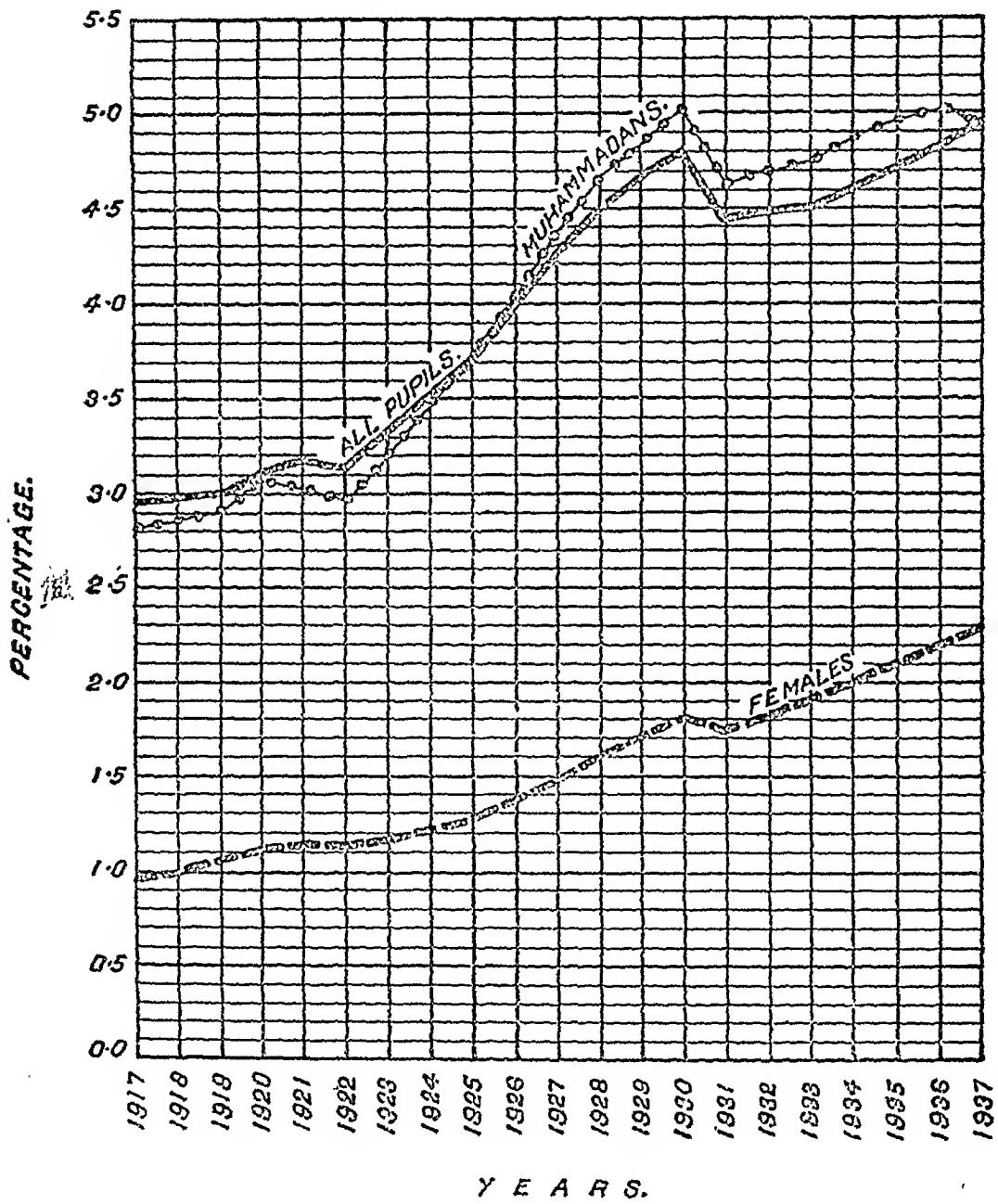
* Sind was included in Bombay, and Orissa in Bihar, upto the 31st March 1936.

(iv) Educational expenditure

23. In the last Review it was observed that the quinquennium of 1927-32 had been a period of great financial strain ; low prices had even more unfortunate effects than the high prices of 10 years ago ; parents, especially those belonging to the agricultural classes, found it more and more difficult to support the education of their children ; and provincial Governments, with their depleted revenues, had to contract seriously the funds available for education. These factors were still operative during the quinquennium under review, and the figures below show the extent to which financial depression has affected educational expenditure.

FIG. 3.

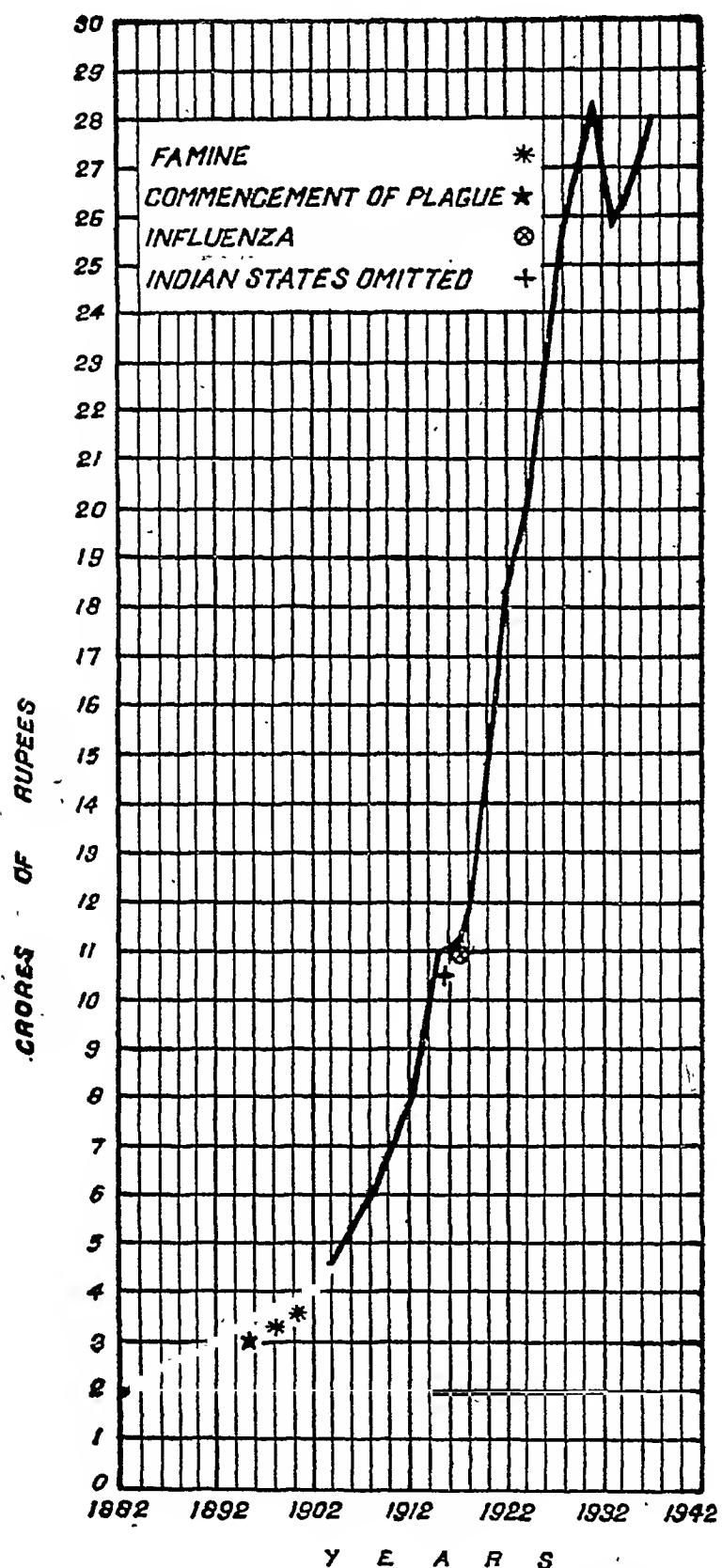
PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS TO POPULATION.
(RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS).



(To face page 14.)

FIG. 4.

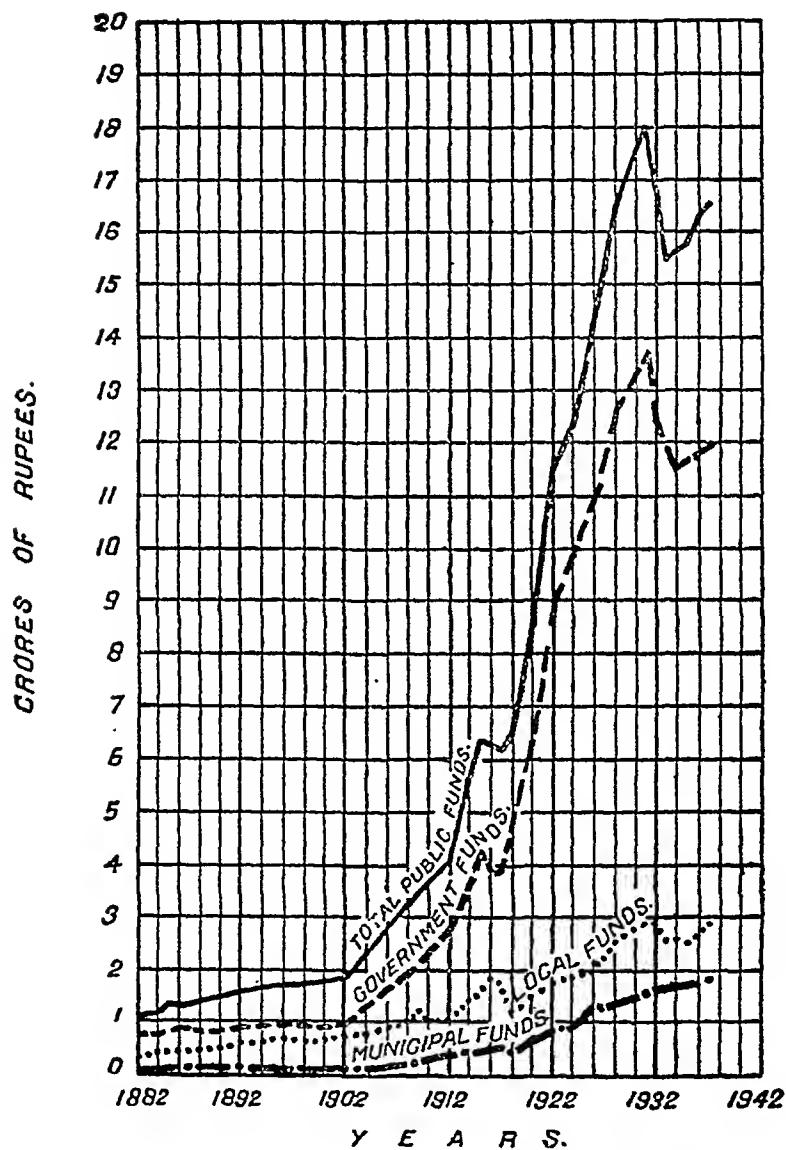
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IN INDIA.



(To face page 16.)

FIG. 5.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION.



(To face page 18.)

28. The tables below, which show the average annual cost per pupil, disclose striking variations between provinces.

TABLE XX.

*Total average annual cost per pupil in institutions for boys and girls,
1936-37.*

Province.	Total cost per pupil in					All insti-tutions.
	Arts Colleges.	High Schools.	English middle Schools.	Vernacular middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	244.81	50.63	42.85	..	8.20	17.38
Bombay	225.99	70.70	41.63	..	15.55	28.93
Bengal	146.38	40.54	17.65	14.31	3.40	14.47
United Provinces	*397.77	†69.81	50.82	20.04	7.43	25.48
Punjab	204.14	45.27	30.21	16.19	10.78	28.02
Burma	474.71	67.09	84.86	18.46	7.68	30.30
Bihar	290.43	44.56	19.06	14.76	6.47	17.80
Central Provinces and Berar.	243.37	120.45	42.00	12.91	11.03	23.08
Assam	211.35	41.76	17.80	8.81	4.55	13.56
North-West Frontier Province.	365.27	46.56	29.49	18.89	13.10	33.49
Sind	243.59	73.60	49.57	..	20.09	33.52
Orissa	402.08	57.29	25.18	15.20	5.79	12.92
Coorg	60.11	12.49	23.96
Delhi	216.63	65.05	29.98	29.00	21.63	59.71
Ajmer-Merwara	258.04	75.72	47.67	44.90	14.45	37.34
Baluchistan	43.97	38.04	..	44.16	68.17
Bangalore	157.48	81.67	35.32	17.29	16.50	54.32
Other Administered Areas.	1,866.23	54.79	41.20	..	19.00	60.62

* Includes the cost in Intermediate colleges.

† Excludes the cost in Intermediate colleges.

TABLE XXI.

Average annual cost per pupil to Government in institutions for boys and girls, 1936-37.

Province.	Cost per pupil to Government in					All insti- tutions.
	Arts Colleges.	High Schools.	English middle Schools.	Vernacular middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	
Madras	79.62	12.16	14.03	..	4.55	7.93
Bombay	45.09	16.30	8.07	..	8.57	11.97
Bengal	49.77	7.26	1.79	1.87	1.08	4.49
United Provinces	188.96	37.15	17.64	11.16	4.74	13.40
Punjab	62.89	15.61	9.37	11.00	6.25	14.33
Burma	326.87	24.00	33.49	1.07	0.52	10.16
Bihar	205.47	13.02	1.24	0.52	0.05	5.95
Central Provinces and Berar.	142.05	48.79	16.45	4.33	4.00	9.95
Assam	127.97	22.70	4.63	2.93	2.89	7.39
North-West Frontier Province.	210.60	24.56	15.68	16.48	8.56	22.10
Sind	22.98	19.70	5.09	..	11.02	14.63
Orissa	292.96	21.18	5.48	8.37	2.04	6.02
Coorg	42.87	7.14	14.77
Delhi	42.31	20.11	10.47	15.80	7.16	23.70
Ajmer-Merwara	180.32	30.02	19.72	28.52	5.03	17.29
Baluchistan	26.53	17.06	..	38.66	46.70
Bangalore	44.12	21.94	13.57	6.09	8.11	18.77
Other Administered Areas.	460.23	15.87	15.26	..	9.34	16.93

TABLE XXII.

Total average annual cost per pupil in institutions for boys, 1936-37.

Province.	Total cost per pupil in					All insti- tutions.
	Arts Colleges.	High Schools.	English middle Schools.	Vernacular middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	
Madras	Rs. 220.53	Rs. 47.58	Rs. 40.20	Rs. ..	Rs. 7.89	Rs. 13.06
Bombay	226.00	67.00	37.95	..	15.00	24.00
Bengal	135.40	38.10	16.79	13.50	3.50	12.10
United Provinces	*385.63	†66.89	48.35	21.00	7.31	17.50
Punjab	199.43	42.75	29.20	16.00	10.85	23.35
Burma	474.71	63.39	89.93	18.60	7.59	20.66
Bihar	290.43	42.88	18.25	14.10	6.36	13.09
Central Provinces and Berar.	240.63	118.72	41.87	12.70	10.53	18.32
Assam	212.18	40.28	17.13	8.70	4.53	9.88
North-West Frontier Province.	414.54	46.23	32.46	19.10	13.13	27.89
Sind	244.00	72.00	47.63	..	19.65	29.00
Orissa	397.57	54.68	25.01	13.20	5.63	10.33
Coorg	69.48	11.85	17.81
Delhi	215.77	64.67	24.48	22.30	18.88	43.19
Ajmer-Merwara	258.04	70.13	39.02	35.90	12.45	32.43
Baluchistan	60.56	39.00	..	44.70	50.02
Bangalore	157.47	87.30	30.10	14.40	16.35	39.96
Other Administered Areas.	1,866.23	55.11	36.15	..	18.26	58.86

* Includes the cost in Intermediate colleges.

† Excludes the cost in Intermediate colleges.

TABLE XXIII.

*Average annual cost per pupil to Government in institutions for boys,
1936-37.*

Province.	Cost per pupil to Government in					All institu- tions.
	Arts Colleges.	High Schools.	English middle Schools.	Vernacular middle Schools.	Pri- mary Schools.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	67.87	9.60	11.64	..	4.43	5.98
Bombay	45.00	15.00	5.47	..	9.00	11.00
Bengal	45.30	5.90	1.29	0.90	1.10	3.30
United Provinces ..	* 183.54	† 36.27	12.18	11.40	4.83	10.24
Punjab	57.55	13.25	8.39	11.60	6.59	12.05
Burma	326.86	23.77	37.70	0.90	0.49	5.62
Bihar	205.47	11.81	0.72	..	0.01	3.15
Central Provinces and Berar.	142.61	48.16	16.58	3.70	3.55	7.57
Assam	128.31	21.46	3.78	3.00	2.90	5.40
North-West Frontier Province.	239.00	24.00	20.46	18.00	9.93	19.09
Sind	23.00	20.00	4.75	..	12.00	13.00
Orissa	287.50	17.73	5.23	6.30	1.98	4.36
Coorg	53.81	6.04	11.00
Delhi	41.63	19.32	7.48	17.20	6.56	13.75
Ajmer-Merwara ..	180.32	29.36	10.54	26.10	5.22	15.51
Baluchistan	36.94	19.06	..	40.28	36.24
Bangalore	44.12	20.33	11.20	5.70	6.10	12.09
Other Administered Areas.	460.23	15.25	11.55	..	9.66	13.37

* Includes cost in Intermediate Colleges.

† Excludes cost in Intermediate Colleges.

In Madras, Bengal, Bihar, Assam and Orissa, the total cost per pupil is comparatively lower than in other provinces. This may be attributed to the fact that stipendiary or privately managed schools, which are less expensive than publicly managed schools, are more numerous in these provinces.

29. The following table classifies educational expenditure according to objects.

It is significant that in spite of all the efforts which have been made to expand the system of primary education, the increase in expenditure is still greater on higher education than on primary education. There was an increase of over Rs. $41\frac{1}{4}$ lakhs in the expenditure on Arts Colleges and universities, and of about Rs. $68\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs in that of secondary schools, whereas there was an increase of Rs. 25 lakhs only in the expenditure of primary schools. This emphasizes the need referred to earlier in this report for concentrating attention on the primary branch in the immediate future.

On the other hand, large measures of economy were effected in the expenditure on professional colleges, training and other special schools, buildings and in other miscellaneous expenditure. The largest reduction amounting to over Rs. 29 lakhs was made in the expenditure on buildings. Next comes the reduction of over Rs. $9\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs in the expenditure on training schools. This is disquieting as the facilities available for training teachers were already insufficient.

(v) *Conclusion.*

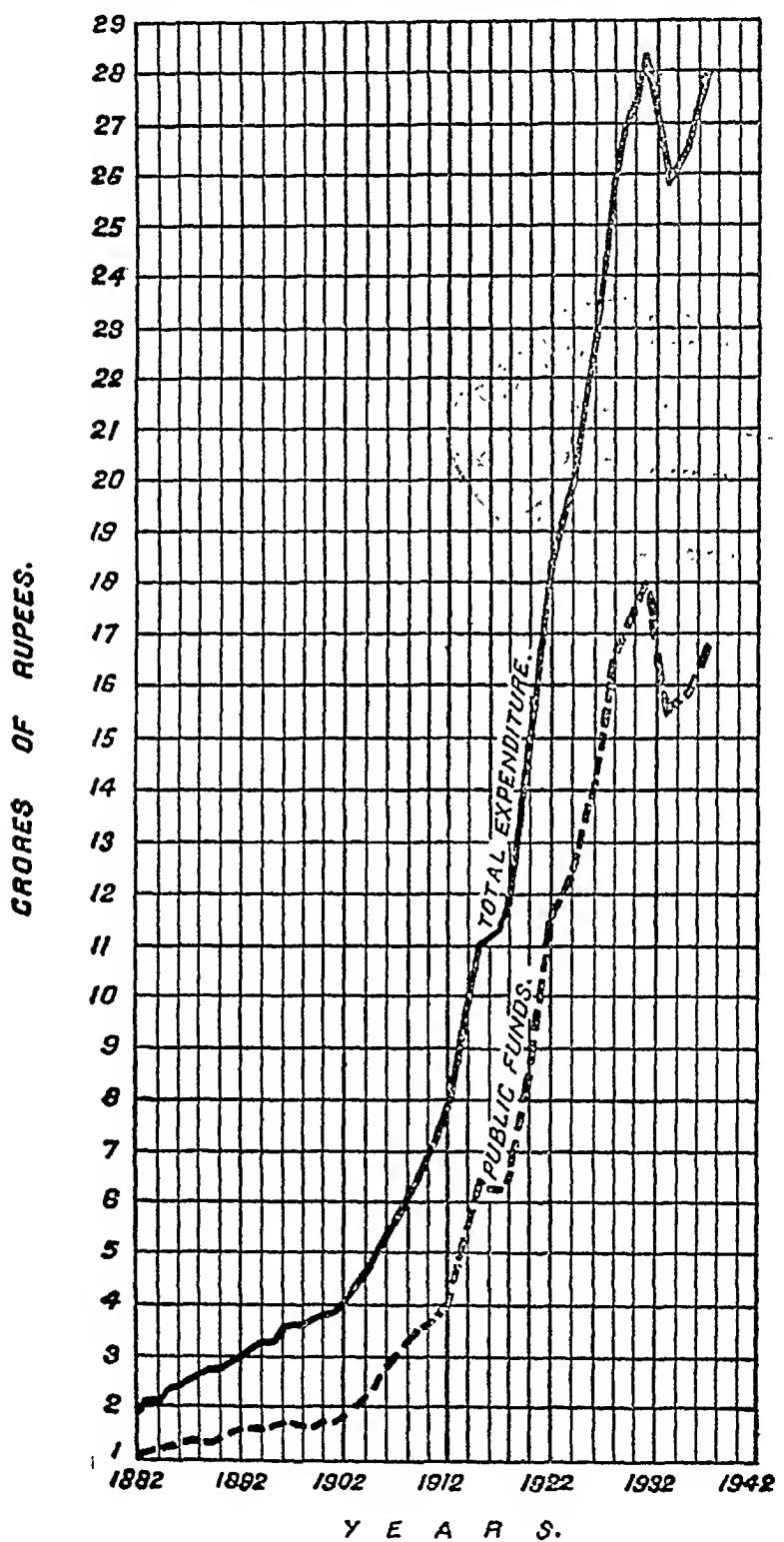
30. In spite of financial depression, the period under review has on the whole been one of continuous if slow progress. This chapter deals with certain main features of the quinquennium and considerations of space have precluded the inclusion in this introduction of any detailed analysis. This will form the subject of the chapters which follow. The table below shows at a glance the general characteristics of educational development in major provinces.

TABLE XXXV.
Main statistics of enrolment and expenditure in 1936-37, by provinces.

Province.	Population (in millions).	Enrolment in all institutions.	Percentage of boys at school to male population.	Percentage of girls at school to female population.	Total expendi- ture.	Government expen- di- ture.	Average total annual cost per pupil.	Average annual cost per pupil to Government.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	..	44.1	3,181,871	10.3	4.1	5,46,61,800	2,49,55,375	17.38	7.93	
Bombay	..	17.0	1,335,889	10.9	3.8	3,70,01,830	1,55,51,740	28.03	11.97	
Bengal	..	60.1	3,205,896	9.5	3.0	4,55,08,430	1,41,12,417	14.47	4.49	
United Provinces	..	48.4	1,640,169	6.0	1.0	4,03,57,260	2,12,18,980	25.48	13.40	
Punjab	..	23.0	1,285,062	8.1	2.3	3,10,58,212	1,63,44,455	28.02	14.33	
Burma	..	14.7	755,404	7.0	3.2	1,65,51,510	55,51,652	30.30	10.16	
Bihar	..	32.4	1,007,408	6.5	0.7	1,67,06,825	84,48,170	17.80	5.95	
Central Provinces and Berar	..	15.5	490,834	6.4	1.1	1,11,74,406	48,16,628	23.08	9.95	
Assam	..	8.0	450,878	8.1	2.2	57,38,134	31,26,157	13.56	7.39	
North-West Frontier Province..	2.4	..	08,880	0.3	1.4	31,70,090	20,05,742	33.49	22.10	
Sind	..	3.0	102,897	0.7	2.7	61,07,065	27,02,608	33.52	11.89	
Orissa	..	8.0	331,088	7.1	1.4	40,03,049	18,94,088	12.02	6.02	

FIG. 6.

PUBLIC AND TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION.



(To face page 24.)

CHAPTER II.

ADMINISTRATION AND CONTROL.

(i) *The Central Government.*

With the introduction of the constitutional reforms in 1921, Indian education became a " provincial transferred " subject and was placed under the charge of a Minister responsible to the provincial legislative council. The control and supervision exercised by the Government of India over education in the major provinces ceased. As stated in the Review of 1927—32, " many advantages have resulted from the transfer of responsibility from the Government of India to provincial Governments ; in the development of initiative and the desire to experiment, in the closer contact with public opinion, in the removal of delays caused by the necessity of referring all important questions to a distant authority. But there are certain disadvantages, which were scarcely noticed at the time ".¹ These disadvantages arose mainly from an undue growth of provincial exclusiveness in educational matters. In the words of the last Review, " the Government of India, realizing the possibilities of these dangers, still desired to take part in educational discussions and to assist provincial Governments by the dissemination of valuable information and by arranging for meetings held with the object of promoting an interchange of thought and experience ".²

2. With this object in view, the Government of India established in 1921 a Central Advisory Board of Education under the chairmanship of their Educational Commissioner. The principal functions of the Board were to offer expert advice on all important educational matters that were referred to it and to conduct educational surveys, whenever required. It was also felt that with the devolution of responsibility for education to the provinces under the reforms, such an organization would serve to keep provincial Governments in touch with one another. This expectation was early realized, and the Board was showing every sign of fulfilling the purpose for which it was set up, when as a result of the recommendations of the Indian Retrenchment Committee it was abolished in 1923.

3. Even at the time, the Government of India had doubts as to the wisdom of this step taken under pressure of the demand for economy that was then paramount, and before many years had passed, the need for the revival of the Board became emphatic. The system of education in different parts of India had been subjected to stresses which revealed the urgency of review and reform. In particular, the relation of the present system of education to the requirements of the employment market had become a question of national importance. The demand for a comprehensive examination of educational problems became insistent. While the autonomy of the provinces in education was recognised and welcomed, it was argued with force that the Government of India could not stand aloof but must make their contribution towards the pressing task of educational reconstruction. There was no reason

¹ 10th Quinquennial Review, page 33.

² 10th Quinquennial Review, page 34.

to change the opinion that the most valuable form which the Central Government's contribution could take would be the provision of a clearing house of ideas and a reservoir of information. The Central Advisory Board of Education was accordingly revived in August 1935 and its functions were defined as (a) to advise on any educational question which may be referred to it by the Government of India or by any provincial Government, and (b) to call for information and advice regarding educational developments of special interest or value to India; to examine this information and circulate it with recommendations to the Government of India and provincial Governments.

4. The Honourable Member of His Excellency the Viceroy's Executive Council in charge of the Department of Education, Health and Lands is Chairman of the Board, the other members of which are the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, ten nominees of the Government of India of whom one at least shall be a woman, one member of the Council of State elected by the Council of State, two members of the Legislative Assembly elected by the Legislative Assembly, three members of the Inter-University Board nominated by the Inter-University Board, India, and a representative of each provincial Government, who shall be either the Minister in charge of Education (or his deputy) or the Director of Public Instruction (or his deputy). The tenure of office of the non-official members of the Board is three years, while the official members continue until they are replaced by others. There is also a Secretary to the Board who is appointed by the Government of India.

5. The Board is at liberty to appoint standing and *ad hoc* committees, and has the power of co-opting to these committees persons who are not members of the Board but possess special knowledge and experience of the problems referred to the committees. The Board has set up four standing committees, viz., (1) Women's Education Committee, (2) Secondary Education Committee, (3) Vernacular Education Committee and (4) Vocational and Professional Education Committee.

6. The inaugural meeting of the new Board was held in December 1935 at which it formulated proposals for a radical reconstruction of school education. The scheme contemplated the division of the school course into definite stages, each with clearly defined objectives, which would enable pupils, on the completion of each stage, either to pass on with as little disturbance as possible to the next or to enter employment. It also provided for the diversion to practical occupations and vocational institutions of those pupils whose aptitudes appeared to lie in that direction. All the provinces have reviewed their system of education in the light of these suggestions, and several are considering the possibilities of reconstruction on lines approximating to those put forward by the Board.

The main subject for consideration before the Board at its second meeting in 1936 was that of primary education. The Board referred this question to its Vernacular Education Committee which did not meet until after the quinquennium under review.

At its second meeting the Board also considered the Report, which its Women's Education Committee had presented on the primary education of

girls in India. The Committee made comprehensive and valuable recommendations, and the Board in adopting the Committee's report emphasized the need of regarding these recommendations not as pious aspirations but as immediate goals. The Government of India forwarded copies of this Report to Provincial Governments and Local Administrations for consideration and necessary action.

To judge from the action taken by the different provinces and their reactions to the advice of the Board, there is reason to hope that the Board will acquire considerable influence on educational theory and practice throughout India.

7. In 1935, in connection with their proposals for a reconstruction of education in India, the Board expressed the opinion that the advice of experts should be obtained. After consulting the Provinces, and with their concurrence, the Government of India decided in 1936 to invite ten persons of wide educational experience and familiar with the most recent ideas in regard to technical and vocational instruction to assist the Provinces in the task of educational reconstruction. The Board of Education in the United Kingdom, whose assistance had been sought in the selection of experts, secured the services of Mr. A. Abbott, C.B.E., formerly His Majesty's Chief Inspector of Technical Schools, Board of Education, England, and Mr. S. H. Wood, M.C., Director of Intelligence, Board of Education, England. Owing to the shortness of the notice, the Board of Education, England, were unable to select the full panel of ten as originally contemplated.

8. Messrs. Abbott and Wood arrived in India in November 1936. As they considered that an intensive study of a limited area would be more profitable than a necessarily cursory survey of British India generally, they limited their investigation mainly to three provinces, viz., the United Provinces, the Punjab and Delhi. They had the opportunity, however, of discussions with administrators, teachers and others concerned with education from practically every province. They were also present at the annual meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Education held in December 1936, and paid a short visit to Bombay before their return to England in March 1937. Their report entitled "Vocational Education in India with a section on General Education and Administration" to the Government of India was not received until after the quinquennium under review, and its important recommendations and the outcome of them will no doubt form an important chapter in the next survey.

9. Before the introduction of the Reforms in 1921, there was also a Bureau of Education at the headquarters of the Central Government under the direction of the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India. Its main duties were to collect and collate information about education in India and abroad and to arrange for the publication of reports on different subjects including an annual report and a quinquennial review of the progress of education in India. As a result of the recommendations of the Indian Retrenchment Committee of 1921, this Bureau was also abolished in the interests of economy. Since the abolition of the Bureau, its work was continued, but on a very limited scale, by the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India.

10. The revived Central Advisory Board of Education considered the question of the re-establishment of the Bureau of Education at its first meeting in December 1935 and resolved in favour of so doing. The Government of India accepted the advice of the Board, and revived the Bureau. As before it is under the control of the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, and the Secretary of the Central Advisory Board of Education is the Curator of the Bureau. So far its activities have been restricted through the lack of an adequate staff with technical qualifications.

11. The Educational Commissioner with the Government of India is not only an *ex-officio* member of the Central Advisory Board of Education and responsible for the Bureau of Education, but he also acts as an adviser to the Government of India in regard to important educational matters generally and the educational policy to be adopted in the centrally administered areas in particular. These areas include Coorg, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara, Baluchistan and other smaller areas. His advice is also at the disposal of Provincial Governments and States if required. In addition, he acts as a Secretariat Officer, dealing with educational cases in the Department of Education, Health and Lands of the Government of India.

(ii) Provincial headquarters staff.

12. Since 1921, a Minister responsible to the provincial legislative council has been responsible for education in each major province. He is assisted by a Director of Public Instruction, who administers education and acts as his technical adviser. In nearly all cases there is also at headquarters a Deputy or Assistant Director of Public Instruction.

13. For good and efficient administration, it is essential that the Director should not only be fully acquainted with local conditions throughout the province but should also be in personal touch with managers of schools, teachers, members of local education authorities and others engaged in local administration. In addition he should be familiar with the major educational developments that are taking place in other provinces and in countries outside India. The manifold duties of his office, however, combined usually with an insufficient staff hardly give him adequate time for these wider issues. In the Assam Report, it is suggested that "the Director should be relieved of his overwhelming routine duties so that he may devote more time and thought to new schemes and the problems of adjusting educational policy under the new constitution to local conditions and requirements..... Unless he is relieved of much of his routine work, his more important work must take a back place".¹ Bengal also reports that "the existing (headquarters') staff can hardly cope with even the normal routine work of the department"² and suggests that "the presence of more senior and experienced officers at headquarters, for constructive work, is urgently needed"². These remarks are capable of a fairly general application.

14. In some provinces, however, there are signs of an intention to strengthen the headquarters' staffs. For example, in Burma an Additional Assistant Director of Public Instruction has recently been appointed temporarily

¹ Assam, page 15.

² Bengal, page 18.

to deal with the recommendations of the Vernacular and Vocational Education Reorganization Committee, and it is recommended that this post should be made permanent. In the Central Provinces, the post of Deputy Director of Public Instruction, which was held in abeyance in 1932, has now been revived. In Assam and the North-West Frontier Province the clerical staff of the office of the Director has been strengthened during the quinquennium under review. On the separation of Sind and Orissa from their parent provinces in 1936, a post of Director of Public Instruction was created for each of those two new provinces and this afforded some relief to the Directors of Bombay and Bihar. The other provincial reports do not refer to any additions to the headquarters' staff. The position on the whole is still unsatisfactory, and in the words of the Hartog Committee, "neglect to provide a proper (headquarters') staff leads not to economy but to extravagance".¹

(iii) Inspection.

15. The position in regard to the inspectorate in the provinces is much the same as that relating to the administrative staff. Provincial Governments are alive to the need of effecting improvement and are doing what is possible within their means, but financial stringency has been and still is the main obstacle.

16. In Madras, a higher class of officers, designated as divisional inspectors of schools, was created during the quinquennium under review. There are at present four such officers for the whole province with the requisite office establishment. Their chief duties are to carry out satisfactorily Government policy, particularly in regard to elementary education, to keep a strict control over the manner in which public funds are expended, to prevent wasteful expenditure on ineffective and inefficient schools and to supervise the work of the district educational officers and their subordinate staff. They also act as liaison officers affording relief to the Director's office and promoting the efficiency of the department as a whole. As time goes on, it is proposed to delegate more powers to these officers. The subordinate inspecting staff has been further strengthened in Madras by the appointment of 28 additional junior deputy inspectors of schools and two sub-assistant inspectresses of schools so as to make it possible for the subordinate inspecting officers to exercise more effective and closer control over the schools in their respective charges. One of these sub-assistant inspectresses has been recently placed in charge of the inspection of Muslim girls' schools.

In order to reduce expenditure on the inspectorate in Madras, two districts—Anantapur and Cuddapa—were amalgamated into a single educational charge, thus abolishing one post of district educational officer. The two separate charges of North and South Malabar were also combined and another post of district educational officer became redundant. One of the posts of inspectresses of girls' schools was abolished reducing the number of circles from seven to six. As a measure of further economy, a reconstruction of the ranges of deputy inspectors of schools on a talukwar basis, which resulted in the substitution of 23 junior deputy inspectors for 25 senior deputy inspectors, was sanctioned early in the quinquennium under review.

¹ Hartog Report, page 288.

17. In Bombay, the question of strengthening the inspecting staff has been long under consideration. One of the main obstacles is the inability of Government to provide the necessary funds. The Bombay Primary Education Act of 1923, under which the control of primary education was transferred to local authorities, has led to the establishment of two inspecting agencies—one under Government which has been greatly depleted and another under the local authority the functions of which are very similar to those of the Government inspecting staff. It is reported that "the establishment of this dual inspecting staff has led to a state of affairs which needs to be remedied at the earliest possible moment".¹ So far, there appears to be no sign of this remedy. The department has, thus, at its disposal merely a skeleton inspecting staff, which is reported to be "not in a position to exercise that degree of control and check over the schools which is essential in view of the large expenditure which Government has to incur on educational grants".¹

18. In Bengal, an Inspector of Schools is attached to each of the five administrative divisions of the province. He deals with all educational questions except colleges, women's education and Anglo-Indian and European Education. The divisional Inspector is assisted by a "second" inspector and an assistant inspector for Muhammadan education; in some divisions there are two "second" inspectors. Each Bengal district has also a District Inspector, who is an officer of the Provincial Educational Service; but during the quinquennium the post of District Inspector of the Chittagong Hill Tracts was abolished and replaced by that of a Sub-Divisional Inspector in the Subordinate Educational Service. As a measure of economy, the number of sub-divisional inspectors was nearly halved. This is disturbing as "numerically the inspecting staff is totally inadequate (in Bengal) for the efficient discharge of their duties"² and "each sub-inspector has far more schools under his charge than he can give proper attention to, and while the number of schools have been increasing, the number of inspecting officers have been gradually reduced".²

19. In the United Provinces, there are now only seven circle inspectors in place of ten. A new post of assistant inspector of drawing and manual training has been created. Otherwise, there has been no increase in the number of inspecting officers of any grade. Although there has been a marked expansion in girls' education there has been no increase at all in the number of women inspectors. Steps are, however, to be taken to appoint district inspectresses and it is hoped that this may help to consolidate the ground that has been gained. The position as to sub-deputy inspectors remains as unsatisfactory as ever and these men are gravely overworked. It is stated that "an increase in the number of sub-deputy inspectors has for long been an urgent necessity but financial considerations have prevented any relief being given".³

Deputy inspectors of schools in the United Provinces remain as before the chief educational officers in their districts. They are also *ex-officio* secretaries of the educational committees of the district boards. Thus in addition

¹ Bombay, page 14.

² Bengal, page 22

³ United Provinces, page 13.

to their responsibility for the educational efficiency of the district they have to spend much time in routine administration, and in carrying out the decisions of the education committee and its chairman. The decisions of the education committee and purely educational considerations are not always in entire harmony and as education committees can demand the transfer of the deputy inspector by passing a resolution with a two-thirds majority, the position of the deputy inspector is a difficult one.

20. In the Punjab, an experiment was tried during the quinquennium of recruiting as inspecting officers, lecturers and teachers from the intermediate colleges as well as from the headmasters of high schools and normal schools. Efforts have also been made to effect an interchange between teachers and the district inspecting officers, so that the latter might remain in touch with the latest methods of teaching. It is gratifying to hear from educational as well as district officers of the commendable work done by the district inspecting staff in the matter of improving and popularising education among all grades of people in the rural areas, in carrying on propaganda and practical work in rural uplift and in co-ordinating the activities of, and co-operating whole-heartedly with, the other social welfare departments. A number of physical training supervisors, who were working in high schools, were transferred to districts and posted as assistant district inspectors of schools for physical training. It is reported that this has proved very useful in giving an impetus to physical training work in the districts. These officers have also been extremely helpful in running district tournaments, olympic meetings and physical training refresher courses for the benefit of vernacular teachers, and in the organization of scouting, village games and clubs and allied activities. With the appointment of a deputy inspector of schools for vernacular education in each division it has also been possible to devote greater attention to vernacular education in rural areas.

The method of inspecting schools in the Punjab has undergone a change during the quinquennium and a distinct improvement is reported by all inspectors. "The departmental officers go to schools now as helpers, friends and guides rather than as carping critics and there is, therefore, less of the old fashioned attitude of inflexibility and opinionativeness and more of a spirit of helpfulness and sympathy on the one side and less of fear and suspicion on the other".¹ But there is a feeling among the inspectors that effective supervision of schools is handicapped to a great extent by the inadequate provision for travelling allowances.

21. In Burma, 41 posts in the inspecting staff had to be surrendered during the quinquennium under review on account of acute financial depression. In that province, the problem which demands immediate attention is the strengthening of the inspectorate both in quantity and quality. The inadequacy of both the superior and subordinate inspectorate has been the subject of mournful comment in the annual reports of the Director of Public Instruction for some years and the Vernacular and Vocational Education Reorganization Committee, appointed by Government to inquire into the educational system of the province, has also emphasized the necessity for substantial increase in

¹ Punjab, page 30.

both branches of the inspeetorate. It is stated in the Burma Report that "no body, outside the educational department, realises the serious effect which an inadequate inspectorate is having on the progress of education in the country "¹ and that "the ever-increasing administrative duties of the inspectors, including attendance at the meetings of the local education authorities, scrutiny of expenditure, supervision of examinations, preparation of reports and the 'running' of their offices make such claims upon their time and energy that they have little or no opportunity for the equally important, if not more important, tasks of supervising the subordinate inspecting staff, of getting into contact with the teachers, of stimulating, reconstructing and co-ordinating, of planning and organising new work and of keeping abreast of modern developments in education ".¹

The quality of the senior inspeetorate has further deteriorated with the gradual passing of the Indian Educational Service. It is also reported that the deputy inspeetorate is not only inadequate in quantity but deficient in quality. During the past two years the Director has made special efforts to stimulate deputy inspectors to make themselves proficient by prescribing courses of study and by the utilisation of efficiency tests. So far the results have been disappointing but there are signs of improvement and it is hoped that the measures taken by the Director will in time have the desired effect of making the deputy inspeetors proficient.

The chief cause of this state of affairs is that the pay and conditions of service attract only pass graduates who have failed to secure appointment in other more attractive branches of Government services. The Burma Report suggests that to recruit men of the right type to the subordinate inspeetorate, it is necessary to make the scales of pay of the educational service at least as attractive as those of other services. As regards the superior inspeetorate, it is stated in the Burma Report that "it is not Utopian to suggest that every newly appointed inspector, who has not had educational experience outside Burma, should be sent abroad for six months or a year before he assumes his duties".²

22. In Bihar, the increase in the number of high schools prevents inspeetors from carrying out a thorough inspection of each school every year. Some relief has, however, been given to the district and deputy inspeetors by transferring to sub-inspeetors the direct responsibility for the inspection of upper primary schools. In consequence, requests have been received from many districts for more sub-inspeetors especially in view of the advisability of more closely supervising the working of the new syllabus in the primary schools. But want of funds still stands in the way of carrying out the Government's intention to appoint special sub-inspeetors, though the five temporary posts of speeial inspecting officers for the education of depressed classes, which were sanctioned in 1927-28, were made permanent in 1935. Three of these posts continued to be in Bihar, the remaining two having been designated for Orissa.

¹ Burma, page 5.

² Burma, page 6.

23. In the Central Provinces, the position is becoming worse. It is reported that the number of deputy inspectors was reduced from 76 to 69 during the quinquennium owing to financial stringency.

24. In Assam, the superior inspecting staff has remained constant, although the need for strengthening it has been emphasized in the annual reports of the Director for many years. The subordinate inspecting staff has, however, been slightly increased during the quinquennium by the addition of four sub-inspectors and two inspecting pandits for the Naga Hills. A scheme for further strengthening the inspectorate has already been approved by Government and is being given effect to gradually.

The arrangement for the inspection and control of girls' schools by male inspecting officers which is at present in force is becoming more and more unworkable in Assam. It is stated in the Assam Report that "it is a disgrace to Assam that its Government for thirteen years have not considered the education of women of sufficient importance to warrant the appointment of more than one lady to deal with all the work connected with the girl students and pupils of the colleges and schools of the province."¹

25. In the North-West Frontier Province, Mardan, which was formerly included in the Peshawar district as a sub-division, was converted into a separate district in the closing year of the quinquennium and a new post of district inspector of schools in the Provincial Educational Service was created. A post of assistant district inspector of schools was also created in the Hazara district in 1933, thereby increasing the number of assistant district inspectors of schools in that district to two. Government has also decided to create a second post of assistant inspectress. In 1936, a temporary post of physical supervisor was created in the North-West Frontier Province. His main duty is to work under the orders of the district inspectors of schools in the different districts of the province for the improvement of drill and physical instruction in all primary and secondary schools. As the result of this experiment has been satisfactory, it is hoped that the post will be made permanent.

26. In Sind, before the transfer of control to local authorities, each district had a deputy educational inspector in the Provincial Educational Service, Class II. After the transfer of control the posts of deputy educational inspectors were abolished and only one assistant deputy educational inspector in the Sub-ordinate Service was retained as the Government inspecting officer in the district.

27. On the constitution of the new province of Orissa in 1936, six posts of senior deputy inspectors, 16 posts of junior deputy inspectors and one post of sub-assistant inspectress were transferred to that province from Madras. The District Educational Officer, Ganjam, has also passed into the service of the new province. Some of the inspecting officers have also been transferred to Orissa from Bihar. One post of inspector of Sanskrit schools was created to replace the post of Superintendent of Sanskrit Studies in the old province of Bihar. The posts of special inspecting officer for Muhammadan education and of special inspecting officers for the education of scheduled castes were retained.

¹ Assam, page 19.

28. The inspecting staff of the Delhi Province remained the same throughout the quinquennium under review. In Coorg also, there has been no change in the inspecting staff. In Ajmer-Merwara, the inspectorate continues to be inadequate and the arrangements for the control of female education and inspection of girls' schools in particular are far from satisfactory. At present, there is a part-time inspectress of girls' schools in Ajmer-Merwara and she has to combine her inspectorial duties with those of the post of headmistress of the Central Girls' Schools, Ajmer. It is proposed to create the post of a whole-time inspectress of female education for Ajmer-Merwara which, it is hoped, will facilitate the expansion of girls' education in that province, particularly in the rural area, where at present there are very few schools for girls.

29. Generally speaking the quinquennium shows a deterioration in the inspectorate both in quality and quantity. The loss of Indian Educational Service officers has not been compensated for by the appointment of officers of equal quality, whilst the expansion of education, particularly that of girls, has out-distanced the provision of additional inspectors. There are, however, signs that several provinces are appreciating the need for a larger inspectorate.

(iv) Local Bodies.

30. A brief summary of the development of local self-government in relation to educational administration was given in the last Review in which it was stated that "as long ago as 1882, the Government of India adopted, as a general principle, that the object of local self-government is to train the people in the management of their own local affairs, that political education of this sort must in the main take precedence of consideration of departmental efficiency and that local bodies should not be subjected to unnecessary control but should learn by making mistakes and profiting by them".¹ Acts have accordingly been passed by provincial legislatures conferring on local bodies very wide powers in all local matters including education. But there must be limits to the extent to which education can be allowed to form the training ground of local administrators. Mistakes of one form or another are inevitable in all administrations; such mistakes are only valuable if they lead to the avoidance of similar mistakes in the future. But there is little evidence to show either that local bodies generally are developing a higher sense of civic responsibility in educational administration or that provincial Governments are ready to exercise the powers they possess in cases of mal-administration of local education. These criticisms are not of course applicable to all local bodies, some of which deserve commendation for the attention they pay to education and for their keen interest in the schools. There is, however, sufficient evidence to show that generally local administration is lax in many ways and that little attempt has been made to remedy this.

31. In Madras, however, a notable change has been made by reconstituting the district boards and by appointing to each of these boards an educational officer from the subordinate inspecting officers of the cadre of deputy inspectors for the administration of elementary education. It is reported that

¹ 10th Quinquennial Review, page 41.

this scheme has worked well in some districts, while in others it has not been effective owing to the failure of district board presidents to delegate sufficient powers to the new officers.

32. In Bombay, Government retains very few powers. The general development and extension of primary education is an obligatory duty of both district local boards and municipalities. These bodies exercise almost full control over primary education under the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1923. There is little doubt, that administration and control have become less effective.

33. Primary education in Bengal is partly controlled by the local bodies and partly by Government ; all primary schools have to be recognised and inspected by officers of the education department. It is reported that local bodies are apt to regard quantity rather than quality as the objective and often give grants to schools against the advice of Government inspectors. Complaints are also constantly received from primary school teachers that local bodies do not give grants to them regularly.

In order to improve the position, the Bengal Rural Primary Education Act of 1930 provided for the establishment of district school boards, to which would be delegated the control and management of primary education in the district. Though the provisions of the Act have not been given effect to because of the financial depression, some districts have established school boards. The District Inspector is an *ex-officio* member and generally also the secretary of these district school boards.

34. In the United Provinces also, the control of primary education is in the hands of the district and municipal boards. For the last ten years, it has been entrusted by the district boards to education committees, while in municipalities it has generally remained a function of the whole municipality though in some cases education committees have been appointed. The United Provinces report that " in the last quinquennial report it was stated that there is ground for hope that responsibility will beget responsibility and the education committees will in time confine themselves to their proper duty—the spread of education among the rural population. This hope has hardly been fulfilled, though it must be acknowledged with satisfaction that some education committees have functioned well. The majority, however, are not interested in education itself but only in the power that membership of a committee gives."¹ The Inspector of Schools, Lucknow, reports that "in almost every local board there are parties and the energies of the chairman and members of the committees are dissipated in party-strife and intrigue leaving hardly any time for constructive educational work".² Another Inspector states that "the future is gloomy and there seems to be no prospect of stable and efficient administration. No amendment of the District Board Act or of the rules framed thereunder will solve the existing administrative difficulties and bring order out of chaos, which

¹ United Provinces, page 3.

² United Provinces, page 14.

prevails in the majority of districts".¹ To remedy this state of affairs, it is suggested in the United Provinces Report that since the bulk of the money spent on primary education comes from public funds it is natural that the government as the people's representatives should demand a major share in supervision and in ensuring that it is spent to the best advantage. But from the experience and results of the last ten years it appears that the problem how to associate local representation and local knowledge with the duty of government in respect to supervision has not been solved.

35. In the Punjab also, it is reported that the vexed question of the delegation of powers by local bodies to educational officers has not been satisfactorily answered and the inspectors continue to comment feelingly on the subject. For example, the Ambala Inspector reports that "all the district boards have delegated powers to the inspector and, in almost all cases, to the district inspectors also, but in actual practice the exercise of these powers is marred by hindrances, obstacles and squabbles".² The inspectors are generally agreed that the delegation of powers should be unqualified, clear and unequivocal or there should be no delegation at all. In order to improve matters, it is suggested in the Punjab Report that there ought at least to be some statutory provision for an appeal in cases where there is a difference of opinion between the Chairman or the President and the Inspector or Inspectress concerned and that the head of the education department or the Commissioner of a division should be made the final authority in such cases.

36. In Burma, since the introduction of the Reforms in 1923, vernacular education has been controlled by the local education authorities, the function of the departmental officers being purely advisory. It is reported that many of these local authorities have made so many mistakes in the last ten years that they should now be perfect if there is any truth in the maxim that the road to perfection is to be found by trial and error. There is no evidence as yet that they are approaching that happy state, although some improvement in the local administration of vernacular education was perceptible during the quinquennium under review. Financial stringency has also caused many of the local education authorities to adopt a more prudent policy and they are now prepared to accept expert opinion and to be guided by the advice of the departmental officers. A minority, however, continued to show an entire lack of financial responsibility combined with wilful perversity. The Report of the Vernacular and Vocational Education Reorganization Committee appointed by the provincial Government contains comprehensive proposals for the reorganization of the system of control of vernacular education by local bodies. The Report is now being considered by government, and it is hoped that it will be adopted.

37. In Bihar, although the relations between the local bodies and the departmental inspecting staff were but rarely strained to such an extent as to call for notice, cases of irregular action by local bodies were frequent in almost every year of the quinquennium under review. In view of the frequency of such irregularities, the question of enlarging and defining the powers and

¹ United Provinces, page 14.

² Punjab, page 31.

duties of the education committees of local bodies as well as the general question of creating a separate statutory authority for the purpose of primary education in each district has from time to time been considered by the provincial Government, but no decision was reached during the quinquennium. Meanwhile, one Inspector of Schools has recommended that a simpler and more expeditious procedure than the one now in vogue should be prescribed for deciding urgent cases of disagreement between the departmental inspecting staff and the local bodies and has suggested the District Magistrate as a suitable appellate authority.

38. In the Central Provinces, the reports of the inspectorate and of divisional and district officers all tend to show that the administration of primary education by local bodies with a few striking exceptions, is still far from satisfactory. Particularly disturbing are the general subordination of the public interest to personal or party considerations and the persistent ignoring of the advice tendered by the deputy inspectors.

39. In Assam, the relations between the department and the local bodies are generally cordial. This cordiality may, it is suggested, be largely due to the officers of the department yielding to the officers of the local bodies; as the report states that "this, of course, is entirely wrong in principle since the officers of the department are experts and aim only at the efficiency of the schools, while in too many cases the orders of the chairman or vice-chairman are influenced by political or personal considerations."¹ It is further suggested in the Report that the obvious remedy is to put the control of vernacular education and all its funds, whether coming from local sources or from Government, under a Provincial Board which will, under the Minister, outline policy, control expenditure and insist through local committees, on the appointment of qualified teachers, regular payment of salaries and a proper distribution of schools.

40. In Sind, it is reported that the local authorities attach little or no importance to the suggestions of the inspecting staff and often resent them. It is suggested in the Report of that province that the Primary Education Act must be either repealed or drastically amended and the Government inspectorate strengthened before efficiency of work in primary schools can be expected.

41. In Delhi, the municipal educational machinery was completely reorganized during the quinquennium under review and much improvement was effected. In Ajmer-Merwara, while an improvement is discernible in the educational administration of the municipalities, the apathy of the district board towards education is as discouraging as ever. It is emphasized in the Ajmer-Merwara Report that "it is essential that the district boards should (now) undertake and discharge their rightful and proper responsibility in the field of primary education in the rural areas."²

42. Complaints also come from several provinces that action is often taken by local bodies on grounds other than educational. Teachers are transferred, dismissed or appointed for personal or party or communal reasons.

¹ Assam Report, page 20.

² Ajmer-Merwara, page 18.

The Inspector of the Benares Division reports " large numbers of transfers of teachers in excess of the number allowed and a general flouting of the rules by chairmen ".¹

In the Punjab it is reported that " even petty matters of general routine are given a personal, party or communal complexion..... Efficiency and merit in services are sacrificed at the altar of favouritism..... Personal considerations and personal interests continue to be frequently placed above merit and efficiency. The teachers serving under these (local) bodies become victims of a factions spirit and their position is made insecure. The schools become the battle-ground of party politics and the resultant mismanagement tells adversely upon the discipline and instructional conditions."²

43. Burma also reports that " party politics and local and personal prejudices continue to influence members of school boards in deciding educational issues " although " abuses of this nature have been less frequent in recent years."³

44. In the Bihar Report, it is stated that " the main grievance of the teacher in a privately managed school is not that he gets about half of the emoluments of his co-worker in a Government school but that he is almost absolutely at the mercy of his committee or of some influential members of it, upon whose favour his prospects are so dependent that his good work for many years may be nullified and his life wrecked by a single resolution passed by a meeting of the committee in which his opponents are temporarily in majority. In order to forestall being disgraced or discharged, he has to divert a substantial part of his energy from his work of his pupils to the humouring of the members of his committee, to canvassing support from the powerful among them and to engaging in intrigue and wire-pulling whenever appointments, promotions or increments are being considered."⁴

The Central Provinces also reports " the general subordination of the public interest to personal or party considerations."⁵

45. In Assam, the position is even more disappointing. It is reported that " when once a local board has drawn its grant it can do what it likes with it. It need not and very often does not pay its teachers for months together. It can close schools and utilise the Government grants for any other purpose. It can refuse appointments to trained teachers and appoint unqualified relatives of its members ".⁶

The Sind report is in a similar strain : " Since the transfer of control (of primary education to local bodies), the transfers amongst the teaching staff have been indiscriminate and based upon considerations other than those of improvement and efficiency. Favouritism is rampant and there is no appreciation of good and conscientious work."⁷

¹ United Provinces, page 14.

² Punjab, pages 31-32.

³ Burma, page 50.

⁴ Bihar, page 24.

⁵ Central Provinces, page 13.

⁶ Assam, page 20.

⁷ Sind, page 13.

46. These quotations from some of the provincial reports are eloquent commentaries on the administration, or mal-administration, of education by local bodies in India. It is a matter of keen regret that most of the defects discussed in the last Review appear to have been perpetuated during the quinquennium. Realizing the urgent need for dealing with a situation which, if allowed to continue, must nullify every plan for educational development, the Central Advisory Board of Education decided in 1936 to refer the question of the administration of primary education to its Vernacular Education Committee with the following specific enquiries :—(1) whether the provincial ministries of education have sufficient powers of control or not in regard to primary education or whether these powers should be strengthened in any direction ; (2) how the inspecting agency should be appointed and controlled ; (3) whether it is essential or desirable that compulsion should be introduced in order that provincial Governments may be able to enforce efficiency through the grants ; and (4) whether primary education should be controlled by a Central Board of Education in each province, of which the Minister for Education should be in charge. This Committee submitted its report after the quinquennium under review. The recommendations made in the report and the action that may be taken on them by provincial Governments will receive the attention they deserve in the next Review.

(v) *The Educational Services.*

47. Some radical changes have taken place in regard to the position of the educational services in India since 1924 when all recruitment to the Indian Educational Service ceased as a result of the recommendations made by the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India. The Royal Commission recommended that "for the purposes of local Governments no further recruitment should be made to the all-India services which operate in transferred fields. The personnel required for these branches of administration should in future be recruited by loc^l Governments". This recommendation has led to the gradual extinction of the Indian Educational Service.

48. In Madras, the number of officers in the Indian Educational Service was 34 at the beginning of the quinquennium under review, while it was only 17 at the end of the same period. In Bombay the strength of this service during the quinquennium was reduced from 35 to 25. In the United Provinces, 33 Indian Educational Service posts were abolished during this period owing to retirements. In Burma, the Indian Educational Service practically came to an end on April 1st, 1937, when the officers still remaining in the service were, with one exception, transferred to the Provincial Service. In Bihar, the last officer belonging to this service will retire in 1946. In other provinces also, the Indian Educational Service is now finishing its career. In the course of its history, this service has established valuable traditions of zeal and devotion to duty which it is hoped, will provide a standard for its successors.

49. When recruitment to the Indian Educational Service was stopped in 1924, it was the intention that a new Provincial Service (Class I) should be created forthwith. But while some provinces took steps in this direction, in others there was a prolonged delay in establishing the new service. Such a delay naturally tended to affect the efficiency of the educational organisation

in the provinces. In 1929, the Hartog Committee remarked that "the progressive extinction of the Indian Educational Service, accompanied by the failure to reconstitute the provincial services has been disastrous to the organization of Indian education."¹ The effect of this delay was described in the Review of 1927-32 in the following words :—

" It was the intention of the Lee Commission that a new Provincial Service (Class I) should be created in each province without delay, and that as posts in the Indian Educational Service fell vacant similar posts in the new Service would be created and filled. Had these essential steps been taken at once, the higher cadres would have been kept up to strength and Education Departments would have been reinforced by the recruitment of men and women with adequate experience and qualifications. With the failure to do so, it will be a long time before the work of education in India can recover from so serious a set-back in the efficiency and competence of the higher personnel. A serious factor in the situation is that the vacant posts have been filled for so many years by means of makeshift arrangements with the result that it will be difficult to pass over the claims of men and women who, though deficient in the necessary qualifications, have at any rate done their best in trying circumstances. Thus, the standard of competence in the new service has been jeopardized from the outset ".²

It is gratifying, however, to note that arrangements have now been completed in most provinces for the constitution of the new service. The table below summarises the position in each province in 1937.

TABLE XXVI.

Provincial Educational Service, Class I, 1936-37.

Province.	Total No. of posts.	I.E.S. Officers.	Number of posts held by			No. of posts vacant or held in abeyance.
			Promoted Officers.	Direct recruit- ment.	Officiating arrange- ment.	
(a) Men's branch.						
Bombay	50	21	6	14	2	7*
Bengal†	54	11	22	9	8	1
United Provinces ..	22	6	11	..	4	1

¹ Hartog Report, pages 337-338.

² 10th Quinquennial Review, page 50.

*Of these, four posts were filled on a contract basis and one was abolished.

†Three posts have been filled on Bengal General Service basis.

Provincial Educational Services, Class I, 1936-37—contd.

Province.	Total No. of Posts.	I.E.S. Officers.	Number of posts held by			No. of posts vacant or held in abeyance.
			Promoted Officers.	Direct recruit- ment.	Officiating arrange- ment.	
(a) Men's branch.						
Punjab	27	9	15	3
Burma	13	4	7	*1	1	..
Bihar†	32	10	11	4	..	5
Central Provinces and Berar	20	8	2	8	1	1
Assam	33	..	13	20
Sind	1	3
Orissa	9	2	3	4
(b) Women's branch.						
Bombay	4	1	3
Bengal	5	3	2	..
United Provinces	1	..	1
Punjab	4	..	3	1
Burma	1	1
Bihar	3	..	1	1	..	1
Central Provinces and Berar	2	2
Sind	1	..	1
Orissa	1	..	1

50. In Madras no Class I Service has been or will be established, and several posts originally included in the cadre of the Indian Educational Service were replaced by posts in the Madras Educational Service during the quinquennium under review as and when permanent vacancies occurred.

In Bombay, the Provincial Educational Service, Class I, is gradually replacing the Indian Educational Service, and it is reported that every attempt

*On Contract basis.

† Two posts are held by officers on special rates of pay.

is being made to recruit highly qualified and capable young men to the new service. Of the 50 posts created in the Men's Branch of the Class I Service, one was abolished during the quinquennium under review.

In Bengal, the new service has now been finally constituted and consists of 54 posts in the Men's Branch and 5 posts in the Women's Branch.

After considerable delay the new Provincial Service Class I came into existence in the United Provinces with effect from July 1, 1936. It contains 23 appointments including 1 in the Women's Branch.

In the Punjab, the Provincial Educational Service, Class I, was created with effect from January 1930, and consists of 27 posts in the Men's Branch and 4 in the Women's Branch.

The cadre of the new Service in Burma, which was constituted in July 1930, now comprises 14 posts, including one for Women. Vacancies in this service have been filled mainly by the promotion of Class II officers with pass degrees, some of whom have no experience of systems of education outside Burma. It is suggested in the Burma Report that "if the standard of the superior service is to be maintained, every officer recruited to the service either by promotion or direct appointment must possess a good Honours Degree".

In Bihar, the new service was constituted in April 1930 and now consists of 32 posts for men and 3 for women.

In the Central Provinces, the new Service is made up of 20 posts in the Men's Branch and 2 in the Women's Branch.

In Assam, the organization of the new Provincial Service was sanctioned in 1932, and all the existing posts in the Indian Educational Service and the Assam Educational Service were merged in the new service, which was divided into two classes. While 33 posts have been created in the Men's Branch of Class I Service, no post exists for women in that class.

In the new provinces of Sind and Orissa, the cadre of the Provincial Educational Service, Class I, consists of 2 and 10 posts respectively, including 1 post in the Women's Branch in each province.

In the North-West Frontier Province, no post has yet been created in the Class I Service.

51. The conditions of the existing Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services vary considerably from province to province, and details will be found in the provincial reports. During the quinquennium under review, scales of pay for educational services in many provinces were revised and reduced as a measure of economy.

In Madras, 13 posts of headmasters and 3 posts of headmistresses in the Provincial Educational Service were reduced to the Subordinate Educational Service. On the other hand, the post of Secretary to the Commissioner for Government examinations was included in the Provincial Educational Service.

In Bombay, the scales of pay for the various services were revised during the quinquennium under review and new scales considerably lower than the old

ones were introduced. It is reported that the subordinate teaching staff have suffered most from this reduction. The Government salary scales usually set the standard, so that the reduction, which has taken place, has also affected the salaries paid to teachers in private institutions and "the position of the teaching staffs in such institutions has thereby been rendered none too happy".¹

The initial pay of the Bengal Educational Service on the revised scale was fixed at only Rs. 150 during the period under review as against Rs. 250 in the old scale and the increments and the maximum were also reduced. It is reported that "experience has shown that the minimum is too low and few appointments can be made on this low initial pay."²

In the United Provinces also, there has been a regrading in the pay of assistant masters of all grades in Government Anglo-vernacular institutions. Pay in aided institutions approximates to the new scale, but competition has reduced the starting pay of trained graduates. Headmasters of Government High Schools have, however, all been promoted to the Provincial Educational Service.

The Punjab reports a little improvement in the pay, position and prospects of teachers employed in schools recognised under the new rules of recognition introduced in 1933. The enforcement of the rules of service and insistence on the execution of agreements between the teachers and the school authorities under the new rules have also had a salutary effect. But the position and security of tenure of teachers in older schools continue to be in the same unstable condition as before.

Reductions in pay were also made in Burma. It is reported however that this did not affect educational efficiency to any great extent "due to the courage and determination with which the teachers faced adversity. They not only accepted drastic reductions in salaries without a murmur, but many remained at their posts even when there was no money in sight to pay salaries".³ At the beginning of the year 1935-36, the clouds of depression began to rise and the last two years of the quinquennium were a period of survey with a view to reconstruction and reorganization, and some temporary improvements have already been effected.

In Bihar, the disparity between the pay of teachers in Government schools and that of teachers in privately managed schools still continues though the revised scales of pay for the Subordinate Educational Service have slightly lowered the average salary of teachers in Government schools.

In the Central Provinces, there was no change in the scales of pay for the Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services during the quinquennium under review.

Assam reports that as a result of reorganization, the Educational Service "has been reduced to the lowest paid of all Government Services..... The

¹ Bombay, page 12.

² Bengal, page 20.

³ Burma, page 1.

pay of teachers in non-Government employ is very small in comparison with that of teachers in Government Service and the tenure of service, especially in private schools, is anything but secure."¹

There have been revisions of salaries in some other provinces also and reductions in pay as a result of such revisions have caused the inevitable discontent.

Sind reports that "there is considerable discontent among the primary teachers over the provisional scales of pay allowed to the new entrants".² In the same strain the Ajmer-Merwara Report observes that "the revision of rates of pay for new entrants has hit the Subordinate Educational Service particularly hard."³

It is thus evident from the various provincial reports that the reduction of pay has borne most heavily on the subordinate teaching staff. How far it will affect the quality of recruits to the teaching profession is still to be seen.

(vi) *The Legislatures and Education.*

52. The Central Legislature continued to evince keen and sustained interest in matters relating to educational policy and administration. In the Legislative Assembly, notice was given of a number of resolutions expressing dissatisfaction with the present system of education in India and a desire that the Government of India should take early steps to render it more practical and useful. As the Government of India are precluded by their constitutional position from assuming more than advisory responsibility in regard to matters which are primarily the concern of provincial Governments it was felt that the most valuable contribution which they could make towards the right development of education was the provision of a clearing house of ideas and a reservoir of information. They accordingly revived the Central Advisory Board of Education, an account of which has been given elsewhere.

53. In March 1936, a resolution was moved in the Council of State recommending that immediate and effective steps be taken for the removal of mass illiteracy in India. In the course of the debate, the Government spokesman stated that since the Reforms the provinces had devoted considerable attention to the development of primary education and the question of mass education had been prominently before the Provincial legislatures and Indian public opinion. He further stated that the Government of India fully recognised that it was most important that the lines of policy in regard to primary education should be clearly and soundly laid and for this purpose they would forward the proceedings of the debate on this resolution to the Central Advisory Board of Education. In view of the sympathetic way in which the Government spokesman dealt with this resolution, the mover did not press the resolution which was, by leave of the Council, withdrawn.

54. Another resolution, which was adopted by the Council of State in March 1936, recommended that effect should be given to the recommendations of the Unemployment Committee of the United Provinces, 1935, and that the

¹ Assam, pages 17 and 25

² Sind, page 13.

³ Ajmer-Merwara, page 16.

Government of India should take steps which would relieve unemployment among the educated classes in India. In the course of discussion it was stated on behalf of the Government of India that they proposed to study this report sympathetically and to take such action as appeared to them to be desirable. After a preliminary analysis in the Industries and Labour Department of the Government of India, the various recommendations made in the Report were referred to the appropriate departments of the Central Government for more detailed investigation with a view to constructive action being taken.

55. The questions on education in the Central Legislature were mainly confined to the universities in receipt of grants-in-aid from central revenues and the areas administered by the Central Government, particularly Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, though some questions of a more general nature were also asked. Some of the questions asked were obviously constructive in intention and showed a keen and genuine interest on the part of the questioners in the educational conditions of the centrally administered areas, e.g., questions relating to the introduction of compulsory primary education, backwardness of female education, spread of education among depressed classes, the education of defective children, etc.

56. A few bills relating to educational matters were also passed in the Central Legislature during the quinquennium.

The Aligarh Muslim University (Amendment) Bill making the post of Pro-Vice-Chancellor permissive was passed into law in 1935. In accordance with section 16 of the original Act, the appointment of a Pro-Vice-Chancellor was obligatory. On financial and other grounds, the University requested the Government of India to introduce amending legislation with a view to abolishing this post. The Government of India were reluctant (and so were the Visiting Board of the University) to have the post abolished, as many were of opinion that an educational head of an educational institution was required. After a careful review of the situation, the Government of India decided to introduce amending legislation whereby the post of Pro-Vice-Chancellor would be permissive and not obligatory. By this arrangement, it will be possible for the post of Pro-Vice-Chancellor to be filled at times when the University considers such action to be desirable and to be left vacant when a Pro-Vice-Chancellor is not required.

The Indian Medical Council Bill was passed by the Central Legislature in September 1933. Under the powers conferred upon it by the Act, the Medical Council of India has appointed Inspectors who have inspected all the medical colleges and the courses of study and final examinations for the medical degrees of the universities of British India and Burma. After consideration of the Inspectors' reports the Council has approved of the medical degrees of all the universities, except those of the Andhra University. As a result of a series of inspections, various improvements have also been made in medical colleges, their courses and examinations.

57. Provincial Legislatures also showed considerable interest in matters educational.

In Madras, the opportunity afforded by the budget session was invariably seized by members of the Legislative Council to raise and discuss a wide variety of educational topics, the range of which is indicated by the following subjects on which questions were asked and discussions took place :—implementing the policy of consolidation and concentration and the working of the policy where it had been introduced ; the working of the modified form of compulsory education in elementary schools ; educational concessions to children and dependants of ex-army men ; award of more liberal grants to schools maintained for the scheduled classes or run by managers belonging to them ; inauguration of schools for adult education ; provision for imparting religious instruction to Muslim pupils in board and municipal secondary schools ; accessibility of public schools to the scheduled class pupils and their admission without payment of fees into secondary schools under the control of local bodies ; proposals for the better organization and supervision of physical education in schools ; working of the provident funds schemes for teachers in non-pensionable service, etc., etc.

No important motion or resolution on education was adopted by the Legislative Council in Bengal during the quinquennium, though discussions were raised more than once on important questions such as the absence of adequate provision for vocational education, the undue encouragement given to a purely literary type of education, the unsatisfactory nature of the present dual control of secondary education, the need for reforming the constitution of the Calcutta University, the delay in enforcing the provisions of the Bengal Rural Primary Education Act of 1930, adequate provision for the education of the scheduled castes, etc. A large number of questions on various aspects of education were also asked, some of which dealt with general questions like grants to district boards for payment to untrained and trained teachers of primary schools, the necessity of increasing the number of trained women teachers, the deprovincialization of Government schools and colleges and the inadequacy of the grant made to the Calcutta University.

In the United Provinces, education as usual held a prominent place in the deliberations of the legislature and several resolutions were moved. The chief objects of attention were the expansion of girls' education, improvement in the education of backward and depressed classes and the subject of the educated unemployed. The policy of Government was greatly influenced by the discussions on these subjects.

Measures to amend the United Provinces District Board Act so as to bring in certain improvements relating to education committees and an Act to amend the Agra University Act of 1926 were passed. The object of the latter was to allow members of the district inspecting staff to appear as private candidates for degrees on a par with teachers. A further bill to amend the Agra University Act so as to provide increased representation of public men and governing bodies of colleges on the Senate and Executive Council was discussed and passed in 1936-37.

Similar interest was also shown in the Punjab Legislative Council. As a result of a resolution passed in the Provincial Council, a Text-Book Enquiry Committee was appointed in 1934. One of the recommendations of thi

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Committee led to the dissolution of the Punjab Text-Book Committee in 1936 and the constitution in its place of the Punjab Advisory Board of Books, an account of which is given elsewhere.

During the quinquennium 510 questions on educational matters were asked in the Legislative Council in Burma. There were two Compulsory Education Bills and nine debates on resolutions connected with educational subjects. Motions for grants were also frequently used as occasions for criticizing the general policy of the education department.

In Bihar, no legislation dealing with educational matters was undertaken during the quinquennium, except a minor amendment of the Patna University Act seeking among other small changes to give the Syndicate power to co-opt Fellows to fill temporary vacancies in its own number. Four resolutions connected with education were also moved in the provincial Council. They dealt with the provision for the teaching of Biology at least up to the B.Sc. standard, either in the Science College or in one of the colleges of Bihar, the question of the amendment of the rules so as to enable district boards to devote 6 per cent instead of 4 per cent of their total grant for educational purposes to the teaching of English in Middle schools, the giving of a vocational bias to the instruction imparted in secondary schools and in the highest classes of primary schools, and the provision for craft classes at the end of the primary and middle stages. All these resolutions were, however, withdrawn in view of the sympathetic replies on the part of Government. The number of questions asked in the Bihar Council about educational matters, if the different sub-heads of a question are reckoned as separate questions, was as many as 876.

Public opinion was fully represented in the Legislative Council of the Central Provinces in the discussion of educational matters. In 1933, the Central Provinces Primary Education Act of 1920 was amended so as to provide that in every area in which a notification under section 5 or section 6 of the Act is in force no fees shall be charged in respect of the primary education of a child of the sex specified in such notification in any primary school managed by a local authority or by Government and such fees may be charged or remitted in any primary school not maintained wholly out of provincial or local funds; provided that, if fees have been remitted, the local authority shall pay to the authorities of such school compensation for loss of income caused by such remission or such portion thereof as the Provincial Government may direct.

In Assam, a resolution in favour of forming a Board of Vernacular Education was passed unanimously in the Legislative Council. A draft bill on the lines suggested in the Council debate was prepared and circulated for opinion. The opinions received were approximately equally divided for and against the bill. It is suggested in the Assam Report that "the main point to be considered by the new Ministry and the new Legislature is that at present neither the Minister for Education nor the (provincial) Assembly has any practical control over the expenditure on primary education".¹

The year 1932 saw the introduction of reforms in the North-West Frontier Province, with the consequent creation of a legislative council. In the small Legislative Council of Coorg also, education continued to receive attention though mainly by way of questions about matters of local interest.

It is gratifying to note that the legislatures, in general, are now paying more attention to broad questions of constructive policy.

(vii) Committees and Conferences.

58. The quinquennium under review saw the appointment of a number of committees in India to examine various educational problems and to suggest ways and means to effect improvements in the educational system. Reference to the committees appointed in the provinces will be made in the appropriate chapters of this Review. This section deals with the committees and conferences which are not confined to any particular province.

59. The third Conference of Indian Universities was held in Delhi in March 1934 under the auspices of the Inter-University Board. The Conference was opened by His Excellency the Viceroy (Lord Willingdon), and was attended by the delegates from all the universities in India as well as the representatives of the Government of India, the Public Service Commission of India, the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research and the Indian Institute of Science. Besides delegates, a large number of educationists were also present. The Conference discussed some of the vital questions relating to Indian education, e.g., technological education in Indian Universities, the problem of unemployment among university graduates, the relation of university education to secondary education, the use of vernaculars as media of instruction, etc.

As regards unemployment, the Conference resolved that "a practical solution of the problem of unemployment can only be found in a radical re-adjustment of the present system of education in schools in such a way that a large number of pupils shall be diverted at the completion of their secondary education either to professions or to separate vocational institutions" and that "this will enable the universities to improve their standard of admission". In another resolution, the Conference developed in greater detail their theme of school reconstruction and suggested that "with a view to effecting such improvement in secondary education and thus making possible a higher standard of university education, the period of study in a university for a Pass degree should be at least three years, although the normal length of the period during which a pupil is under instruction should not be increased and that this period should be divided into four definite stages : (a) Primary, (b) middle, (c) higher secondary and (d) university, covering five (or four), four (or five), three and at least three years respectively—there being a formal examination at the end of each stage only, thus avoiding the abuse of too frequent formal examinations".

As many provinces had been reviewing the system of school education and had been considering the possibilities of its reconstruction somewhat on the lines suggested by the Universities' Conference, the Government of India brought these important resolutions to the attention of provincial Governments, and through them, to the notice of a wider public.

60. The meetings of the Inter-University Board were held annually during the quinquennium at Delhi, Calcutta, Aligarh, Nagpur and Allahabad. All the Indian Universities are members of the Board, and the Rangoon University which was compelled some years ago to resign membership owing to its long distance from the place of meeting has applied to rejoin. Various important matters were considered by the Board during the quinquennium under review, e.g., the question of uniformity of standards of Entrant Examinations of the different Indian Universities, conditions of entrance to the public services, mutual recognition of university degrees in India and of Indian degrees in Europe, etc. The general aim of the Board is to secure, as far as is possible or desirable, uniformity of practice, co-ordination of effort and joint action by the Universities in important matters and to stimulate thought regarding current university problems. It is acting also as a bureau of information.

61. In April 1933, the Government of India convened a Conference to consider the various points raised in regard to the recommendations of the Irwin Sub-Committee of the Third Round Table Conference regarding the education of the Anglo-Indian and the Domiciled European Community in India and to help the community to reach agreement on those points. The Conference was opened by His Excellency the Viceroy (Lord Willingdon) and was attended, among others, by the representatives of the interests concerned. The agreement reached at the Conference was so substantial that it became practicable to set up an Inter-Provincial Board and Provincial Boards for Anglo-Indian and European Education on the lines suggested. The constitution and functions of these boards are given in the chapter dealing with the education of this community.

CHAPTER III.

UNIVERSITIES AND ARTS COLLEGES.

(i) *Early University Acts.*

The Indian Universities Acts of 1857 which established the earliest of the universities in India laid down in their preambles that "it has been determined to establish a University at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras for the purpose of ascertaining by means of examination, the persons who have acquired proficiency in different branches of literature, science and art, and of rewarding them by academical degrees as evidence of their respective attainments."¹ The Acts of 1882 and 1887, by which the Punjab and the Allahabad Universities were incorporated, followed the lines of the Acts of 1857. All these Universities were thus purely examining bodies.

2. In founding these universities, the type of university then believed to be best suited to the educational conditions of India, that is the examining University of London, was taken as a model. Subsequently there was a growing tendency to realize the limitations of a purely examining university, London University itself having taken steps to enlarge the scope of its operations by assuming tuitional functions. The model thus set an example of expansion which naturally reacted upon the corresponding universities in India. An Act was accordingly passed in 1904 which enabled the universities in India to "make provision for the instruction of studies with power to appoint University Professors and Lecturers, to hold and manage educational endowments, to erect, equip and maintain University libraries, laboratories and museums, to make regulations relating to the residence and conduct of students and to do all acts consistent with the Act of Incorporation and this Act, which tend to the promotion of study and research."² The Universities in India thus assumed teaching functions while retaining their affiliating and examining character.

3. Although the Universities Act of 1904 had some beneficial results, the condition of university education was still far from satisfactory in regard to residential arrangements, the relations between the Universities and their constituent colleges, the organization of courses of study and the system of examination. The Government of India accordingly reviewed the whole question of university education and announced in their well-known Resolution of 1913 the policy to be pursued in future in the following words :— "The day is probably far distant when India will be able to dispense altogether with the affiliating university. But it is necessary to restrict the area over which the affiliating universities have control by securing in the first instance, a separate university for each of the leading provinces in India, and secondly, to create new local teaching and residential universities within each of the provinces in harmony with the best modern opinion as to the right road to educational efficiency."³ The first university of this type was incorporated at

¹ Acts Nos. II, XXII and XXVII of 1857.

² Indian Universities Act, 1904.

³ Indian Educational Policy Resolution, 1913, page 35.

Benares by the Benares Hindu University Act of 1915. The Calcutta University Commission which was set up in 1917 was also critical of the affiliating system and strongly advocated the founding of the unitary type of university. As a result various universities of this type came into existence in India. Generally speaking, therefore there are two main types of university in India—the affiliating and the unitary. While eight of the universities in India (Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, the Punjab, Patna, Nagpur, Andhra and Agra) belong to the affiliating type, ten (Allahabad, Benares, Aligarh, Rangoon, Lucknow, Dacca, Delhi, Annamalai, Mysore and Hyderabad) are more or less of the unitary or teaching type.

4. The tables below furnish information as to the nature, activities, and cost of these universities.

TABLE

Universities in

University.	Type (a).	Original date of foundation.	Faculties in which degrees are awarded. (b)
1. Calcutta	Affiliating and teaching.	1857	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., M., L., Com., O.
2. Bombay	Affiliating and teaching.	1857	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., M., L., Com., O., Tech., Ag.
3. Madras	Affiliating and teaching.	1857	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., M., L., Ag., O., F. A.; Com.
4. Punjab	Affiliating and teaching.	1882	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., M., L., Com., O., Ag.
5. Allahabad (c)	Unitary ..	1887	A., Sc., L., Com. ..
6. Benares Hindu	Teaching ..	1916	A., Sc., Ed., L., O., M., Th., Tech.
7. Mysore	Teaching ..	1916	A., Sc., Eng., M., Tech.
8. Patna	Affiliating ..	1917	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., L., M.
9. Osmania	Teaching ..	1918	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., L., M., Th.
10. Aligarh Muslim	Unitary	1920	A., Sc., L., Th., Ed. ..
11. Rangoon (d)	Teaching ..	1920	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., L., M., F.
12. Lucknow	Teaching ..	1920	A., Sc., Ed., M., L., Com., O.
13. Dacca	Unitary and teaching.	1921	A., Sc., L., Ed., Com. ..
14. Delhi	Teaching ..	1922	A., Sc., L.
15. Nagpur	Affiliating and teaching.	1923	A., Sc., Ed., L., Ag. ..
16. Andhra	Affiliating and teaching.	1926	A., Sc., Ed., M., O. ..
17. Agra	Affiliating ..	1927	A., Sc., L., Com., Ag. ..
18. Annamalai	Unitary ..	1929	A., Sc., O.

(a) An "Affiliating" University is a university which recognises external colleges offering the teaching is controlled and conducted by teachers appointed by the university; a teaching is conducted by teachers appointed by and under the control of the University.

(b) Faculties A.=Arts; Ag.=Agriculture; Com.=Commerce; Ed.=Education Learning; Sc.= Science; Tech.=Technology; Th.=Theology.

(c) Reconstituted in 1922. (d) Has an affiliated College which is managed by the

TABLE XXVIII.

Expenditure from Government funds on universities and degree colleges 1936-37.

Province.	Expenditure on Education from Gov- ernment funds.	Expenditure from Gov- ernment funds on.		Total of (3) and (4).	Percentage of (5) to (2).
		Universities	Degree Colleges.		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Madras	2,49,55,375	6,15,500	9,00,370	15,15,870
Bombay	1,55,51,740	1,17,000	4,44,743	5,61,743
Bengal	1,41,12,417	9,21,000	11,64,480	20,85,480
United Provinces	..	2,06,18,989	(a) 17,86,523	5,05,597	22,92,120
Punjab	1,63,44,455	2,12,446	5,73,446	7,85,892
Burma	55,51,652	8,39,421	..	8,39,421
Bihar	56,13,466	21,100	7,28,210	7,49,310
Central Provinces and Berar.		48,16,628	45,492	3,95,758	4,41,250
Assam	31,26,157	..	2,89,715	2,89,715
North-West Frontier Province.		20,95,742	..	1,84,275	1,84,275
Sind	27,02,668	..	29,000	29,000
Orissa	18,94,088	2,000	2,22,684	2,24,684
Delhi	11,28,120	1,00,000	78,043	1,78,043
Ajmer-Merwara	..	4,26,846	..	64,195	64,195
Bangalore	..	3,43,686	..	15,000	15,000
British India	..	11,92,82,029	46,60,482	55,95,516	1,02,55,998
					8·6

(a) Excludes Government of India's recurring grants of Rs. 3 lakhs to Benares university and Rs. 3 lakhs to Aligarh university.

The percentage of expenditure on university education to the total expenditure on education from Government funds varies considerably from province to province. Delhi shows the highest percentage of 15·8. Other provinces where this percentage is still high are Bengal, the United Provinces, Burma, Bihar, Orissa and Ajmer-Merwara.

5. The following table shows the number of students who are receiving university education in India :—

TABLE XXIX.

Enrolment in universities.

University.	1917.	1922.	1927.	1932.	1937.
1. Calcutta	28,618	23,044	30,202	26,560	35,357
2. Bombay	8,001	8,493	11,411	14,499	17,766
3. Madras	10,216	12,653	16,922	16,610	17,597
4. Punjab	6,583	7,372	11,416	16,971	19,841
5. Allahabad	7,807	6,445	3,244	1,746	2,056
6. Benares Hindu	1,050	1,936	2,993	3,385
7. Mysore	1,460	1,749	2,833	2,725
8. Patna	2,417	4,817	4,739	5,898
9. Osmania	345	798	856	1,723
10. Aligarh Muslim	702	959	1,150	1,822
11. Rangoon	507	1,479	1,674	2,426
12. Lucknow	632	1,448	1,813	2,340
13. Dacca	1,030	1,339	1,063	1,268
14. Delhi	706	1,310	2,026	2,120
15. Nagpur	1,575	2,354	3,767
16. Andhra	3,136	3,805	3,659
17. Agra	2,985	4,132
18. Annamalai	561	741
Total ..	61,225	66,856	93,741	105,238	128,623

Perhaps the most striking feature of university education in India is its rapid numerical expansion. Twenty years ago, the number of students in universities was 61,225 only. Today it is 128,623. Few parallels to this acceleration in numerical growth will probably be found elsewhere. In the words of the Nagpur University Review, "the forces responsible for this increase are too complicated for analysis; but they certainly include the ever-increasing appreciation of the cultural value of university education, the social advantages of higher education, the absence of any avenues for high-grade technical training and employment after the matriculation stage, the persistence of the old belief in the ultimate relation of university degrees to public services; and the unrestricted admission to the law courses, which keeps away from the young graduates the haunting economic realities for some time."¹

(ii) *Affiliating universities.*

6. "An affiliating university, as the term is used in this country, is a university which affiliates to itself or associates with itself in a *quasi* subordinate capacity such colleges—not necessarily all in the same place—as make provision for the instruction of students, the general course and quality of the instruction given as well as other conditions, for instance of residence and discipline, being usually laid down in the bye-laws or regulations of the university. In this type of university each college is in itself an embryo university, except that considerable external control, especially over courses and standards of instruction, exists and is vested in the university to which the college is affiliated, the extent and degree of this control being laid down in the University Act, its statutes, ordinances and regulations. The internal control vests entirely in the college authorities. An affiliating university may be looked upon as a university of federal colleges, each college being subordinate to and subject to the rules of the federation."²

7. The Calcutta University is the largest university of the affiliating type. The Indian Universities Act, which was passed in 1904, however, empowered it to make suitable provision for the instruction of students also.

Besides being an examining body, the University now conducts Post-graduate Teaching in Calcutta. For this purpose, two Councils have been constituted, namely the Council of Post-Graduate Teaching in Arts and the Council of Post-Graduate Teaching in Science. While the number of students in the Arts Department of Post-Graduate Teaching fell from 1,300 in 1932-33 to 1,225 in 1936-37, the number of students in the Science Department rose from 247 to 272 during the same period.

In addition to the post-graduate classes, the University also conducts commerce classes and a few other classes for undergraduate students.

The most notable extension of the activities of the University during the period under review was the opening of the Teachers' Training Department where short courses in training were given to teachers in secondary schools. These short courses proved very popular and the classes were filled to their

¹ Nagpur University Q. R.

² 9th Q. R., page 54.

maximum capacity. This department also arranged special vacation courses which were also well attended. Altogether, 1,877 teachers have already received training in the different courses including 686 in the vacation course.

As a measure against unemployment, the University established an Appointments and Information Board in January 1937. The main functions of the Board are (1) to select apprentices for practical training, both technical and non-technical, in firms and industrial concerns ; (2) to recommend to the firms the names of suitable candidates for appointment when requested ; (3) to remain generally in touch with employers, to collect statistics regarding possible openings and to supply information to the graduates and undergraduates as to careers open to them ; and (4) to advise students preparing for various service examinations, to supply them with particulars of such examinations and, if necessary, to organize their training. It is reported that already 27 university graduates and under-graduates in science have been placed in different branches of trade, industry and commerce. It is gratifying to note that the Board has been able to secure the interest of commercial and industrial concerns of the city, and in some of these concerns no recruitment either for training or appointment is made without consulting the Board.

The finances of the University showed remarkable improvement during the quinquennium under review, mainly due to a considerable increase in the fee income. At the end of the previous quinquennium, the University finances were in a serious condition, and the Bengal Government appointed Dr. W. A. Jenkins as a Special Officer to examine University receipts and expenditure. On his report and after some negotiations, Government agreed to pay the University Rs. 3,60,000 annually to balance its budget. Though it was not possible for the University to undertake any large scheme of expansion and reconstruction or even to give effect to certain long contemplated reforms, they were, at least, able to balance their budget throughout the quinquennium.

8. The University of Bombay was also founded in 1857 as a purely examining body, all its Fellows being nominated for life by Government. The scope of the University was extended by the Indian Universities Act in 1904, whereby it obtained a measure of control over the affiliated colleges in the Presidency and also received authority to appoint teachers of its own. The tenure of Fellowships was limited to five years, and an elective element was introduced in the constitution of the Senate by allowing one-fifth of the members to be elected by registered graduates and the Faculties. The spread of education since 1904 rendered necessary an inquiry as to whether the constitution of the university could not be altered still further so as to bring it into closer touch with the community in general and to enable it to discharge the higher duties demanded of it by the public in the shape of well-organized post-graduate teaching and research. A committee to consider the question of university reforms was accordingly appointed in 1924 and reported in 1925. In order to give effect to such of the proposals as required legislation, a bill was introduced in the Bombay Legislative Council in 1927 and passed into an Act in 1928. The chief provisions of this Act were to extend the elective principle to the composition of the various authorities of the University and to entrust the technical part of the work to a newly constituted body, the academic

Council, which is composed entirely of persons connected directly with education. The problem of post-graduate teaching and research has been in the forefront of the university programme since the passing of the Bombay University Act, 1928. The Act provides for the constitution and functions of a Board of post-graduate studies as one of the authorities of the University with a view to enabling the University to provide greater facilities for higher education and to conduct post-graduate teaching in all branches of learning including technology. This Board and the Syndicate have been giving anxious thought to the problem of reorganizing post-graduate work. The University is now conducting post-graduate teaching and research through recognised university teachers in various centres outside Bombay.

The School of Economics and Sociology maintained by the University since 1919-20 continued to show steady progress during the quinquennium. The number of students increased from 87 in 1932 to 246 in 1937. The School is specially devoted to research work, and progress in this field is reported to be satisfactory. The number of research students increased from 48 in 1932 to 53 in 1937. The School is reported to be now in a position to play a prominent part as a research institution by encouraging systematic enquiries into the economic and social problems of the City and the Presidency.

A faculty of technology was created during the quinquennium under review. The courses of studies for professional examinations relating to engineering, agriculture, medicine and law have also been revised.

During the period a good deal of research work was also carried on in the University Departments and in the affiliated colleges and recognised post-graduate institutions, a summary of which is published every year in the Annual Reports of the Syndicate.

9. The Madras University, which was originally founded mainly as an affiliating and examining body, has, under the changing conditions, considerably modified its character by developing teaching and research activities as well.

The quinquennium ending with March 1937 was an important period in the history of this university. It saw the completion both of the University building scheme and of the Tamil Lexicon, works which were started more or less at the same time. Other academic events of importance were the institution of a University Students' Union, University Examination Boards, etc. Subject to the ultimate authority of the Syndicate, the control of the Students' Union is vested in a governing body composed of the principals of the constituent colleges for men and the management of the Union is vested in a managing committee elected by the members themselves. A sum of about Rs. 10,000 is provided annually for its expenses. The Inter-University and Inter-Collegiate Tournaments were also instituted during the quinquennium under review. A sum of Rs. 6,000 is annually provided for running these tournaments.

Some important changes also took place in the courses of studies and examinations. For example, a diploma in Political and Public Administration has been instituted and a Faculty of Veterinary Science established; proposals to introduce Home Science as an optional subject in B.A. and B.Sc. degree courses have been accepted by the University authorities.

As required by the Madras University Act, the University considered carefully the question of the establishment of new university centres but felt that in the present state of university development in that province, the establishment of other universities was neither desirable nor practical.

10. The Punjab University has widened its activities by the organization of an Honours School in Physics and by the establishment of a Department of Political Science and of a Public Service Examination Class. An attempt is being made through the Public Service Examination Class to advise students who wish to appear in the Indian Civil Service and Indian Finance Service Examinations about the choice of subjects, and actual instruction is provided during the winter term in the compulsory subjects for these competitive examinations. Useful research work has been done by both University and College professors in the departments of Science, Oriental learning and Economics.

In 1933, the University celebrated its jubilee, and as a memorial of this event, funds were collected for the erection of a University Union Hall. The building was formally opened by His Excellency the Chancellor in 1936-37. The Union Society, however, "is still a constant source of anxiety to the University as it has failed to attract a representative body of students, or to have developed a programme of activities at all suitable for a body of this nature."¹

The most important event during the quinquennium was the appointment of the Punjab University Enquiry Committee. The main recommendations of the Committee fall under three heads, academic, financial and constitutional. The object of the academic recommendations was to draw to the University only such students as were likely to benefit by the instruction provided. It was recognised that this was dependent on the strengthening of the foundations by a reorganization of the school system. It was recommended that the period of instruction for the B.A. in the University should be extended from two to three years. Suggestions were made for revising the functions and personnel of the various University bodies including the Senate, the Syndicate and the Academic Council. The Senate was to be a widely representative body consisting of representatives from the provincial legislature, the local bodies, learned, professional and educational institutions, the aristocracy, the registered graduates and teachers of the University and its colleges. The function of the Syndicate was envisaged as the management of University administration and finance and the exercising of executive authority. It was to be responsible for the framing of a constructive policy of development and for co-ordinating all the activities of the University. The recommendations regarding the constitution of the Syndicate included the nomination of six members by the Chancellor. The Committee was of opinion that the academic bodies should be composed of experienced scholars and should be largely ex-officio, while the Vice-Chancellor, who was their head, should have considerable power of nominating members. The financial recommendations included the conversion of the Board of Accounts into a Standing Finance Committee on which, it was suggested, one or two financial experts should find a place.

The Senate did not favour any of the major academic recommendations of the Enquiry Committee. It, however, recommended the extension and

¹ Punjab, page 39.

improvement of the present School Board. In the composition of the various University bodies, no final opinion was expressed regarding the Academic Council and the Faculties, but the composition of the Senate was to be changed by a reduction in the number of nominated members and an increase in the number of members elected by the registered graduates. The principle of representation of various local bodies and of the Legislative Council on the future Senate was accepted.

The opinion of the University on these recommendations of the Enquiry Committee was sent to the Government of the Punjab early in 1934. The recommendations are still under the consideration of the Provincial Government and no orders have yet been passed.

As regards the financial recommendations of the Enquiry Committee, the Syndicate has considered them all and converted the Board of Accounts into a Board of Finance on the lines indicated by the Committee.

11. The Patna University was established by an Act of 1917. This Act was brought up to date and into conformity with present conditions by an Amendment Act in 1932. It is becoming plain now that the more representative character of the Senate and the Syndicate and the purely federal character of the University, which this legislation ensured, have attracted the generosity of public benefactors and focussed public attention upon certain much needed reforms in the courses of study. These, having been passed by the Senate, now await the approval of Government.

The University continues to be primarily an examining body. The number of students has increased and facilities for instruction have been extended by the introduction in affiliated colleges of new subjects.

The financial position of the University during the period has been satisfactory.

12. The Nagpur University is also an examining body, though the Act by which it was incorporated makes due provision for its being made both teaching and affiliating. Perhaps the most remarkable feature of the last five years under review is the numerical expansion of the University. The number of colleges in the University has almost doubled, having grown from 8 in 1932 to 15 in 1937, while the number of students has risen from 2,354 to 3,767 during the same period.

There was no change in the constitution of the University except that the number of the elected representatives of the Court on the Executive Council was raised from four to five, as a partial response to the wishes of the Court for a larger representation on the chief executive body of the university, and the term of office of the Vice-Chancellor was raised to three years, the period of two years, rare in Indian Universities, being regarded as too short.

Instruction continued to be imparted through the affiliated colleges except in the case of the newly introduced courses for the Diplomas in Oriental Learning for which the system of registering individual teachers (not institutions as such) as competent to impart instruction up to a specified standard was introduced.

When the University was established in 1923, it was contemplated that, as time passed, it would be possible for it to give increasing attention to teaching and research. The University Act was so framed as to make the transition from an affiliating to a teaching university possible without further recourse to legislation. But owing to financial and other difficulties, this ideal has receded further and further into the background. In 1934, the Executive Council of the University was invited by the Government to express its views on the scheme for a Federal University on the lines formulated by the Government of India for the University of Delhi. The Council accepted in principle the scheme which is based in its central conception on the recommendation made by the Hilton Young Commission for the University of London. But it is reported that " essential conditions for the success of a Federal University are lacking at present : there are no public funds available, the allocation of which among colleges would give the University a voice in regulating their development ; several colleges in the University are situated outside Nagpur and even in Nagpur there is no site and no funds available for locating the teaching resources in the University in a central place. There are, therefore, no immediate prospects of realizing the idea."¹

13. A University called the Andhra University was constituted in 1926 with a view to providing the Andhra Districts of the Madras Province with a university of their own.

The University College of Arts attached to the Andhra University was opened in July 1931 with provision for teaching up to the Honours Standard in history, economics, politics, and Telugu language and literature. In July of the next year, two more departments of teaching, namely, mathematics and philosophy, were opened. In the same year, the University College of Science and Technology, providing instruction leading to B.Sc. Honours Degree Examinations in physics and chemistry was also opened. In July 1933, the technology course leading to B.Sc. Honours Degree Examination, with Sugar and the Sugar industry as a special subject, was instituted in the Science College. With effect from July 1934, courses in Commerce leading to B. Com. (Pass and Honours) degrees were organized in the University College of Arts.

During the quinquennium, a considerable amount of research work was also done by the members of the several Departments and the results were published in standard journals from time to time.

Another notable event of the quinquennium is the execution of a deed of gift by the Maharaja of Jeypore (Andhra) agreeing to pay towards the expenditure of the University College of Science and Technology, an annual contribution of Rs. 50,000 for 1933-34, Rs. 75,000 for 1934-35 and Rs. 1,00,000 per annum thereafter till such time when he or his heirs might pay up a capital sum of Rs. 15,00,000.

14. The United Provinces have the largest number of universities, namely 5. Of these only three—Allahabad, Lucknow and Agra—are provincial universities in the strict sense of the term. The Aligarh and Benares Universities

¹ Nagpur University Q. R.

of the University has risen from 1,746 in 1931-32 to 2,056 in 1936-37. Changes in courses include the institution of a research Degree of D. Phil., while the ordinances for the Degrees of D. Sc. and D. Litt. have been thoroughly revised.

The progress of research work in the various departments of the University is reported to have been very satisfactory.

The University has no large endowments except for certain scholarships and a reserve fund. It is supported by a Government grant and income from fees. There has been a deficit for most of the quinquennium, and the University looks to Government to make this good. But it is reported that with the other claims on Government resources this expectation may be disappointed.

17. The Benares Hindu University came into existence in 1916, and since then, with the support of the Central Government, the princes and the people, it has made good progress. The quinquennium under review has been noteworthy not so much for new developments as for the steady consolidation of the existing departments of teaching.

In 1936, owing to the increase in the number of students and the introduction of a number of new subjects, the science departments of the Central Hindu College were separated and constituted a separate College of Science. The Women's College was raised to the B.A. standard and its staff considerably strengthened.

On the academic side, the only change of importance was the institution of a Faculty of Technology in 1936. The advancement of technical education was one of the earliest objects of the University and, within the course of the last twenty one years, as funds have become available, technological courses in a variety of subjects have been introduced. All these technological courses, which were formerly under the Faculty of Science, were placed under the newly created Faculty of Technology. The output of research work has been satisfactory. A noteworthy feature of this research was the investigation of problems of commercial and industrial importance.

The University also introduced primary and rural education, experimental education and infant education as subjects of special study for the B. T. Examination.

Instruction is imparted through colleges and departments directly maintained by the University. The total enrolment of students was 3,385 in 1936-37 as against 2,993 in 1931-32.

As regards the financial position of the University, it is reported that during the quinquennium there was a deficit of Rs. 3 lakhs, while there is a large outstanding debt.

18. The Muslim University, Aligarh, which was established in 1920, grew out of the Mohammadan Anglo-Oriental College founded by Sir Syed Ahmad Khan in 1875. It is a unitary and mainly residential university. During the quinquennium, several important changes have been made in the constitution of the University and in the rules and regulations governing the post-graduate examinations and new subjects have been included in the list of optional subjects for various examinations. For example, an amendment of the statutes was effected which raised the number of the members of the

Executive Council from 3 to 15. The Provincial and Central Legislatures have been brought into closer contact with the supreme governing body of the University by a new provision for the election of 25 members to the Court from among the members of the Legislatures.

Perhaps the most important development on the academic side is the establishment of a Science College as an integral part of the University and the provision of research facilities in all science subjects.

A small beginning has also been made in the direction of establishing a Technical Institute or a College of Engineering in the University. Classes were started in 1936 to prepare students for second grade engineering and electrical diplomas. These courses are proving popular, and there is a wide demand for extending the activities of this institute.

The number of students in the University has advanced from 1,159 in 1931-32 to 1,822 in 1936-37.

Although the Benares and Aligarh Universities are primarily intended for Hindu and Muslim students respectively, they are open to students of all castes and creeds.

19. The Rangoon University was founded in 1920 as a teaching and residential university. It controls the teaching in the constituent colleges through the professors who are the Heads of the various departments and are members of the staffs of the constituent colleges. The period under review has been one of consolidation and adjustment. It has seen a great increase in the number of students despite discouraging economic conditions. The number of students in the constituent colleges has risen from 1,551 in 1931-32 to 2,288 in 1936-37.

The percentage of passes in the Intermediate Examinations and the marked difference between the numbers in the Intermediate Courses and the Higher Courses show that there is still a considerable amount of 'wastage' amongst the students in the University. Contributory causes of this wastage are reported to be the inability of parents to pay fees and the fact that some of the students expect to achieve results without corresponding effort—but the chief reasons are said to be inefficient teaching and a low standard of English in the majority of the schools from which the students come. "The bulk of the 'wastage' is made up of ill-prepared students who fulfil their ambition, or that of their parents, by entering the University and there discover either that they are unfit for University studies or that University studies are unfit for them. It is worthy of note that there is much less 'wastage' among students who enter the University between the ages of 16 and 18 than among those who enter after they have passed their 18th birthday."¹

The Delhi University Report also complains of 'wastage' in university education. In that province, out of 1,211 students who passed the High School Examination in 1931, only 327 or 27 per cent passed the Intermediate, 233 or 19 per cent passed the B. A. Examination and only 3 per cent passed the M. A. Examination.

¹ Burma, page 10.

The Burma Report suggests that "the solution of the problem (of wastage) must begin with reform in the schools."¹

20. The Lucknow University, which was founded in 1920, is designed to be a unitary, teaching and residential university. It is reported that as a teaching unit it has practically reached the limits of its capacity for enrolments, the Faculties of Science, Law and Medicine having refused admission to many. Even in the Faculty of Arts limits were prescribed and reached in several departments. The total enrolment increased from 1,813 in 1932 to 2,340 in 1937.

The work of the quinquennium has been characterized by consolidation rather than extension and research done by the members of the staff and students is reported to have obtained international recognition. The University continues to aim at a high standard of research. The number of research scholars for the Ph. D. and D. Sc. degrees has increased from 34 in 1932 to 42 in 1937.

No change was made in the constitution of the University during the quinquennium except that the old maximum of twenty representatives of the registered graduates on the University Court has been increased to a possible maximum of thirty. The Court has now been given the power to pass resolutions on the educational and administrative policy of the University.

21. The University of Dacca was founded in 1921, and is the only unitary teaching and residential university in the province of Bengal. The number of students in the University was 1,063 in 1931-32. There was a steady increase throughout the quinquennium, and on the 31st March 1937, the number had risen to 1,268.

A department for the study of physiology, botany and soil science was opened, and during the quinquennium under review the University continued to carry on valuable research work in agricultural chemistry, for which grants were received from the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research. A biochemical section of the university was also opened, and bio-chemistry has now been introduced as an alternative paper in the Chemistry Honours Examination and as a subject in the M.Sc. Course in Chemistry. It was also decided to introduce statistics as a subject of study in the Honours Course in mathematics, and military science as one paper in the ordinary B.A. Examination, but these proposals had not been given effect to during the period under review.

22. The Delhi University was incorporated by the Delhi University Act of 1922 as a unitary teaching and residential university. So far, however, it has acted mainly as an affiliating and examining body.

In 1934, the Government of India indicated the future educational policy of the Government with regard to this University and suggested its development on federal lines. They stated that "the original intention in constituting

¹ Burma, page 10.

the University of Delhi was to create a university which would be freed from the inevitable defects of a purely affiliating institution but at the same time to give its constituent colleges ample scope to develop their resources in co-operation with each other and with the University itself. The ideal is, therefore, that the University should be transformed into one of the federal type as circumstances permit. The main conditions which are essential to the evolution of a university of this kind may be summarised briefly as follows :—

- (a) The university and its constituent colleges should be situated in close proximity of each other;
- (b) each constituent college should be actively engaged in work of a university standard;
- (c) each constituent college should be prepared to forego some measure of its autonomy in order to share in and contribute to the type and government of the university as a whole; and
- (d) the actual teaching should as far as possible be provided by constituent colleges under the guidance of the university".¹

It was chiefly with this end in view that the Government of India decided to hand over to the University, the site and buildings of the old Viceregal Estate on the understanding that the University on the one hand and constituent colleges on the other hand would adopt the scheme as set out above.

The project for developing the Delhi University on federal lines took definite shape during the quinquennium under review and was endorsed both by the Government of India and by the University.

On the Arts side the University controls the teaching of Honours and Post-graduate courses and on the Science side the B.Sc. pass-course, as the teaching of science beyond the intermediate standard is the exclusive concern of the University. It has also its own Law Hall. Of late the University has approved a diploma course in Domestic Science for the students of the Lady Irwin College, Delhi.

23. The Annamalai University came into existence in 1929. The most notable development in connexion with the academic work of this University during the period under review was the incorporation of the Raja Annamalai Music College and the Oriental Training College in 1932. A professional course in music extending over a period of four years leading to an examination for the title of 'Sangita Bhushana' and a training course for pundits in Sanskrit and Tamil leading to the award of a certificate at the end of one year's study were instituted.

The tutorial system which provides for tuition being given either to an individual student or to a small group of three or four was extended to the

¹ Delhi, page 37.

B.A. and B.Sc. pass students. The increased personal contact between teachers and students which has resulted from the introduction of this system is the subject of favourable comment.

A research department in Tamil was instituted in July 1934. Attempts have also been made to procure the publication of suitable text-books in Tamil with a view to the ultimate adoption of Tamil as the medium of instruction for the different subjects of study in the University, and it is hoped that standard text-books in Tamil on all subjects of study will be made available in the course of the next few years so that a start may be made in this direction in the intermediate classes.

The courses of study and examination for the several degrees and titles originally based on those of the Madras University were remodelled in the light of experience and as a result of recommendations by expert Committees, Boards of Studies and Faculties.

The University has also arranged to open a Bureau of Information with a view to assisting its graduates to obtain suitable employment; the Bureau will maintain an official register of graduates giving particulars of their addresses, employment and achievements.

24. The University of Mysore and the Osmania University of Hyderabad are situated in Indian States.

The University of Mysore was the first university to be founded in an Indian State. It was incorporated in 1916. During the quinquennium under review, the constitution of the University was extended by a bill which amended the University Regulation of 1916 and received the assent of His Highness the Maharaja of Mysore in 1933. The main features of this measure are the establishment of another University authority in addition to the Senate and the University Council, namely, the Academic Council responsible for the academic organization of the University, the enlargement of the Senate so as to make it more representative of popular interests, by creating a class of life members of the Senate and by giving representation to municipalities, district boards and associations. Some changes were also made in the courses and examinations of the University. Original research work was carried on in the University and the results were published as usual in recognised journals and scientific periodicals.

The number of students in the university has, however, declined from 2,833 in 1931-32 to 2,725 in 1936-37.

25. The Osmania University in the Hyderabad State was established by a Charter of the Ruler of the State in 1918. This university differs from other Indian universities in having Urdu as the medium of instruction instead of English, but English is a compulsory subject upto the B.A. stage, and the books prescribed for study are translations of standard English works studied

in other universities. M.A. classes in English and Economics and M.Sc. classes in Biology were started during the period under review. The courses of the Faculty of Theology and Medicine were also revised. The number of students in the University has risen from 856 in 1931-32 to 1,723 in 1936-37.

26. In recent years, there has been a tendency to multiply facilities for every branch of study in all the universities in India with the result that there is much overlapping of courses and much expenditure which might be avoided if there were closer co-operation between the University authorities.

It is not easy to suggest actual means for making such co-ordination effective. The United Provinces Report states that "the question is a difficult one and a solution unlikely to be reached by agreement and can only be imposed".¹

In the last Review it was stated that considerable improvement has been made in this direction in the United Kingdom by the agency of the University Grants Committee, which keeps in close touch with universities and is thus in a position to give authoritative and experienced advice not only to the grant-giving authorities but also to the universities themselves. At its meeting held in 1936, the Inter-University Board, India, passed a resolution recommending the institution in each province or a group of provinces of a University Grants Committee on the same lines as the University Grants Committee of Great Britain. It would be interesting to see what practical effect the setting up of such bodies in India would achieve. It is worthy of note that in Bengal a comprehensive scheme has been worked out to prevent, as far as practicable, any duplication of work in the three Government Colleges in Calcutta by treating them as one unit for purely teaching purposes. The scheme is still under the consideration of the Government of Bengal. The outcome of this scheme, if introduced, will be watched with interest.

27. The provinces of Assam, the North-West Frontier, Sind, Orissa, Coorg, Ajmer-Merwara and Baluchistan have no universities of their own. The needs of Assam are met by the Calcutta University; the N.W.F. Province and Baluchistan are served by the Punjab University, Sind comes within the jurisdiction of Bombay University; Coorg depends upon the Madras University, and Ajmer-Merwara is under the Agra University. The schools and colleges in South Orissa are affiliated to the Andhra University, while those of North Orissa are affiliated to the Patna University.

(iv) Arts colleges.

28. The number of arts colleges in the whole of British India has risen from 243 in 1931-32 to 272 in 1936-37 while their enrolment has advanced from 72,354 to 86,407 during the same period. The provincial figures are given in the table below.

TABLE XXX.
Arts colleges and their enrolment.

Province.	1931-32.		1936-37.		Increase between 1932-37.	
	Arts colleges.	Enrol- ment.	Arts colleges.	Enrol- ment.	Arts colleges.	Enrol- ment.
Madras	63	12,913	64	12,271	1	-642
Bombay	15	9,226	14	9,864	(a)	(a)
Bengal	49	19,744	50	26,591	1	6,847
United Provinces ..	49	7,707	58	9,311	9	1,604
Punjab	33	13,140	36	13,780	3	640
Burma	1	123	1	134	..	11
Bihar	11	3,579	9	3,620	(a)	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar.	6	1,815	10	2,788	4	971
Assam	3	1,208	9	2,292	6	1,084
North-West Frontier Province.	3	510	3	875	..	365
Sind	(a)	(a)	3	1,262	(a)	(a)
Orissa	(a)	(a)	4	797	(a)	(a)
Coorg
Delhi	7	1,826	7	2,040	..	215
Ajmer-Merwara ..	2	277	2	356	..	89
Baluchistan
Bangalore	1	287	1	349	..	63
Other Administered Areas.	1	88	1	88
British India ..	243	72,354	272	86,407	29	14,053

(a) In 1931-32, Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar, while they were constituted into separate provinces in 1936-37. Hence no comparison has been made.

These statistics of institutions and students bear out the general conclusion that the demand for higher education is increasing year after year and has not so far been affected by the problem of unemployment among university graduates. The Bengal Report observes that "Bengal is faced with a tragic situation. While the problem of the educated unemployed is becoming increasingly acute, the University is flooding the province with an ever-growing number of young men who are not merely unemployed but also often unemployable."¹ The Punjab Government state that "it is considered highly

¹ Bengal, page 63.

desirable that an indiscriminate rush of unsuitable and ill-prepared candidates to university courses should be definitely discouraged and counteracted".¹ The provincial report says that "the University authorities themselves have so far done nothing to counteract this evil, but are still prepared to recognise new institutions without enforcement of stricter standards. Nor can the problem be really solved by the mere imposition of more stringent standards of affiliation and examination, though of course these are desirable for the elimination of the laxity which has so long prevailed. The real solution can only come with a complete recasting of the educational machinery of the province, and with the expansion not only of vocational and technical education, but also of industry and commerce, so that those trained for these purposes, find ready absorption".²

29. The colleges vary greatly in size. Some colleges in Calcutta have over a thousand students each. The Bengal Report states that "it is difficult to explain satisfactorily the tendency on the part of the student community to flock to the Calcutta colleges. The popularity of some of the larger Calcutta colleges is certainly not due to their superior efficiency; very little is done in them beyond class room lecturing and the percentage of successes in the University examinations is well below the average for the University. Judged by the percentage of passes, the mofussil colleges usually do better than the majority of the Calcutta colleges. But these large Calcutta colleges try to be spectacular by making all efforts to capture the top places in the University class lists. This they attempt by luring students, who have done well in the Matriculation or the Intermediate Examination, to their colleges by offering them special privileges. There is often an undignified scramble between the colleges for the enrolment of such students by approaching them personally or through personal letters to them and dangling before them inducements like additional stipends, free tuition, free coaching and even free boarding in the attached hostels. From more points than one, the drift of the students to these large Calcutta colleges cannot but be regarded as an unhealthy sign".³

The inherent defect in colleges which become abnormally large is obvious. They cease to be capable of exercising adequate control and supervision either over tuition or conduct. New colleges should be opened to relieve these colleges of their excessive enrolment, and attempts should be made to adjust the number of students in the existing colleges. But the real solution lies, as recommended by the Central Advisory Board of Education, in the readjustment of the present system of higher education so as not only to prepare pupils for professional and university courses but also to enable them, at the completion of appropriate stages, to be diverted to occupations or to separate vocational institutions.

30. Though university colleges in Bengal report substantial increases in the enrolment of students, the ordinary teaching work in them generally continued along old lines. The Bengal Report observes that "colleges still relied entirely on mass lectures and the tutorial work, which the University insists on, was generally a travesty of what it should be. Mr. K. Zachariah,

¹Punjab, page 2 (Government Resolution).

²Punjab, page 37.

³Bengal, page 64.

Principal of Hooghly Moshin College, excellently sums up the present position in Collegiate education : "The intellectual objectives of a college are, first, to pass the students through the University examinations, and secondly, to give them a sound intellectual training. In a good educational system, these two objects approximate very closely, but unhappily, in Calcutta, they have little connection with each other—I had almost said they were irreconcilable. To pass the University examination nothing more is needed than an effort of the memory, so stereotyped and unintelligent are the questions generally set. It is difficult to persuade students to make any real mental effort when they are perfectly certain that it is irrelevant to success in the examination. One works, therefore, under a terrible handicap. The only way to overcome it is, by the communication of a personal enthusiasm, to infect a few individuals with a genuine love of learning. This is what the tutorial system is supposed to do, and what in Bengal it scarcely ever does. The grounds are too large and formal for effective work.....Another great weakness is the abstract nature of much of the study".¹

The Central Provinces Report also states that although the system of tutorial classes has been still further extended, much remains to be done to enable students to get the best value out of them. In Bombay, tutorial work is, however, carried on in all colleges as far as circumstances permit, but it is generally only possible in the higher classes where the number of students is comparatively small.

31. It was suggested by the Calcutta University Commission of 1917-1919 as well as by other authorities that intermediate classes should be removed from the jurisdiction of universities. The aim underlying this suggestion was to relieve universities of functions which did not come within their proper scope as well as to strengthen the foundations laid at school. Some Governments and Universities welcomed this suggestion, and some of the University Acts provided for an immediate or an ultimate separation of the intermediate classes from the degree classes and special intermediate colleges were established in various provinces. This type of institution however does not seem to have been successful.

The Bihar Report observes that "no definite pronouncement can yet be made on the success or failure of intermediate colleges in the province. It would seem that the position, as stated by the writer of the last quinquennial review (of Bihar) remains unchanged, viz., that 'these institutions are never likely to be very successful'. These institutions were never meant to compete with first-grade colleges which, if the recommendations of the Sadler Commission were followed, should concern themselves with preparing students for the degree and post-graduate examinations alone. One Principal deplores that the intermediate colleges have not come into their own in this province; they lead a struggling existence and there are no signs of growth or development. He adds that the retention of the I. A. classes in the degree colleges may be a potent cause of this chronic anaemia".²

In the same strain, the Punjab Government state that "intermediate colleges have dwindled in popularity and have not been very successful as

¹ Bengal, pages 64-65.

² Bihar, page 38.

abundant proofs of the benefits of higher education, for whatever we may say of the deterioration of examination standards, of the plethora of the educated unemployed, and the tragedies of mal-adjustments of individuals, liberal education is a leaven which penetrates every aspect of national life, and lifts it up to a higher and richer conception".¹

The Central Provinces Report also observes that "corporate life was stimulated by debating societies, social gatherings and co-operative stores which on the whole, were successful. Particularly interesting were the social service activities of some of the colleges".²

In the North-West Frontier Province, students are said to be more amenable to discipline than most of the students elsewhere in India. This remark according to the report applies with equal force to students from tribal territories.

The Bengal Report remarks that the relations between the Hindu and Muslim students in the Dacca Intermediate College are worthy of emulation. The relations there are so cordial that the "Muslim students join the festival connected with the Saraswati Puja and the Hindu students join in the Milad Sharifs arranged by the Muslim boarders".³

33. There was also a great improvement in the political situation during the period under review and this was naturally reflected in the tone and temper of the students. In the report on the Rajshahi College, Bengal, it is stated that "the great stress laid by the college upon athletics and healthy outdoor games and sports possibly had the effect of detaching students from dark, unhealthy broodings that so often find an explosive expression in terroristic activities".⁴ In Chittagong also, where the political situation continued to be disturbed at the beginning of the quinquennium, "except in a few cases, the conduct of the general body of the students, throughout the period under review, was above reproach. A system of tutorial supervision which has been introduced with a view to bringing students into closer personal relationship with the members of the staff yielded satisfactory results".⁵

Bihar also reports that there was no political agitation of major importance during the quinquennium, and none, in any case, which had a direct influence on the work of the colleges.

In Assam also, "the period under review was free from political disturbances" and the provincial report observes that "political leaders seem to have decided to leave (college) students and school boys to get on with their work instead of calling them out of school and college into the disturbed air of political strife. As a result, school and college discipline has been good and there have been no serious troubles".⁶

In the same strain, the Sind report also observes that "as the political atmosphere during the whole quinquennium was comparatively calm, the discipline at the colleges was normal, and all activities had a peaceful character about them. The staff of the colleges were therefore in a position to concentrate upon educational work securing in consequence better results at the university examinations".⁷

¹ Punjab, page 42.

² Central Provinces, page 24.

³ Bengal, pages 82-83.

⁴ Bengal, page 77.

⁷ Sind, page 23.

⁵ Bengal, page 78.

⁶ Assam, page 3.

The Burma Report is the only one which sounds a discordant note. It states that "during the quinquennium the increasing national consciousness and social and political unrest had an adverse effect on the discipline of the students of the University. The younger generation of Burmans, in common with the youth of other nations, seems to be dissatisfied with the world, in which it finds itself growing up, and resentful of the present social and economic structure".¹

34. Another useful activity in the corporate life of universities is found in the University Training Corps. The following table gives the number and strength of the various units of these corps in British India.

TABLE XXXI.
University Training Corps.

University.	Unit.	When constituted.	Sanctioned establishment. (All ranks).	Actual strength on 1st April 1937.
Bombay	1st (Bombay) Battalion ..	1921	663	653
Calcutta	2nd (Calcutta) Battalion ..	1921	663	560
Allahabad				
Benares				
Aligarh	3rd (United Provinces) Battalion.	1921	603	632
Lucknow				
Agra				
Punjab	4th (Lahore) Battalion ..	1921	603	595
Madras	5th (Madras) Battalion ..	1921	603	640
Rangoon (a)	6th (Burma) Battalion ..	1921	663	634
Patna	7th (Patna) Company ..	1922	165	131
Delhi	8th (Delhi) Battalion ..	1924	330	324
Nagpur	10th (Nagpur) Battalion ..	1928	330	319
Bombay	11th (Karachi) Company ..	1928	165	164
Dacca	12th (Dacca) Company ..	1928	70	70
	Totals ..		5,044	4,748

(a) The figures for the Rangoon University are for the 1st January 1937. Figures for the 1st April 1937 are not available.

¹ Burma, pages 12-13.

A University Training Corps has also been constituted in the Hyderabad State. It was started in 1936 with the formation of two platoons of 38 cadets each. A member of the staff of the Osmania University acts as Adjutant and is assisted by two Instructors deputed by the Army Headquarters.

The reports on the various University Training Corps show that they continue to work satisfactorily. The standard of training and efficiency is reasonably high and students continue to show keenness and enthusiasm for military training.

It is interesting to note that some universities introduced military science in their curriculum during the quinquennium under review. In the Calcutta University curriculum, a course of military studies for the members of the University Training Corps was introduced in 1936. The Dacca University has decided to introduce military science as one paper in the ordinary B.A. Examination. Ordinances for a certificate of proficiency in military science have also been framed by the Allahabad University, and regular instruction is being given. A scheme for the establishment of a Military College is receiving the earnest attention of the authorities of the Aligarh Muslim University.

The only discouraging news comes from Bihar, where it is reported, that the interest taken by the students in the Patna University Training Corps is poor. One Principal attributes this to various causes. He complains that "the usefulness of this body is impaired by the fact that attendance at drill interferes with students' athletic activities, that the annual camp is held at a time which is academically unsuitable and that the conditions are rather severe in many ways".¹ It is also stated that there is a handicap to the expansion of the Patna University Training Corps in that its activities centre in Patna only and the mofussil colleges do not get a chance to join it.

(vi) Institutions for Scientific Research.

35. Apart from the universities, the most notable institutions devoted to scientific research in India are the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, the Bose Research Institute, Calcutta, and the Indian Association for the Cultivation of Science, Calcutta.

The Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, owes its origin to the munificence of the late Mr. J. N. Tata. It provides facilities for post-graduate work in five main branches of Science, namely, Physics, General Chemistry, Organic Chemistry, Bio-Chemistry and Electrical Technology. The Physics Department was created during the quinquennium under review and started work in 1933 with 11 students.

The total number of the students and other research workers in the various departments of the Institute has risen from 154 in 1931-32 to 185 in 1936-37. Of these 185 students, 64 held Institute scholarships and 4 research scholarships.

As required by Regulation 32 (i) of the Scheme for the administration and management of the properties and funds of the Institute, His Excellency the

¹ Bihar, page 37.

Viceroy as Visitor of the Institute appointed a Committee in January 1936 under the chairmanship of Sir James Irvine, C.B.E., F.R.S., Principal and Vice-Chancellor, University of St. Andrews, to review the working of the Institute with special reference to the purposes for which it was founded and, if any changes were considered desirable in the organization or activities of the Institute for the better achievement of those purposes, to make recommendations accordingly, but with due regard to the Institute's actual or reasonably augmentable financial resources. The Committee submitted their report in March 1936. As a result of their recommendations, the Institute in future will comprise three main sections each with its special sphere of activity, viz., (a) Physical and Mathematical Sciences in which the research work will continue to be primarily of a fundamental nature with an allegiance to the intellectual rather than to the industrial aspects of life, (b) Chemical Sciences which will be called upon to carry the main responsibility for applied research while not neglecting original work of a more academic type, and (c) Engineering Sciences where the duties for the time being will be in part instructional and in part investigatory.

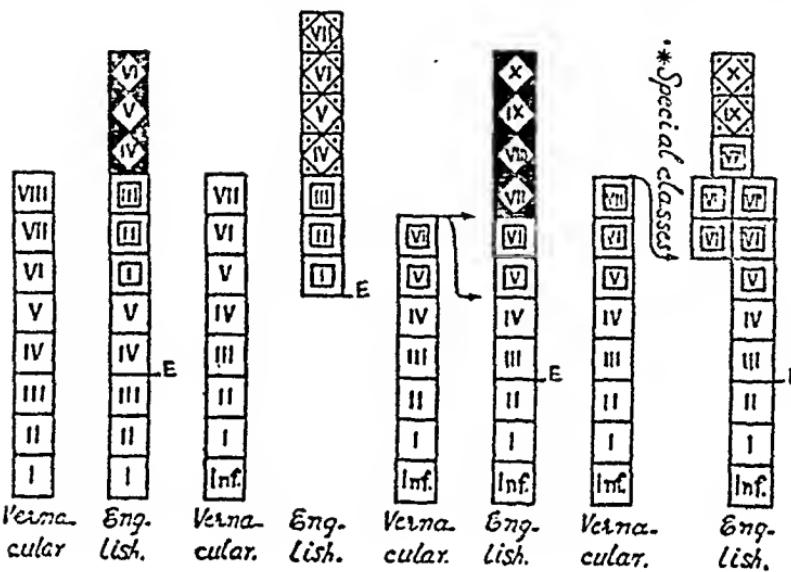
36. The Bose Research Institute was founded at Calcutta in 1917 by Sir J. C. Bose and specially equipped for the study of the life phenomena in plants and animals. Later on two further research stations were established, one at Darjeeling and the other at Falta. Since 1931, the scope of the investigations carried out in the Institute has been widened, and during the period under review research has been carried out in the following departments :—Plant physiology, Cytogenetics, Agricultural and Bio Chemistry, Anthropology, Theoretical Physics, Cosmic Radiation and Spectroscopy. The results of the investigations carried out in the Institute are published in the "Transactions of the Institute".

37. The Indian Association for the Cultivation of Science, Calcutta, was founded as early as 1876 by the late Dr. Mahendra Lal Sircar with the object of providing facilities for scientific research. Considerable improvements in the laboratory of the Association have been made in recent years, and it is now suitably adapted for research work in the various branches of physical, chemical and mineralogical investigation. During the quinquennium under review, the Association continued to be an active centre of scientific research and attracted research workers from different parts of India. Courses of lectures in Physics and Chemistry were also arranged by the Association. These lectures were utilised by the students of the Calcutta Medical School among others. Facilities were also given for training in Physics and Chemistry and for meteorological observations to the students of the Teachers Training Department of the Calcutta University.

MADRAS.

BOMBAY.

BENGAL. UNITED. PROVINCES



CHAPTER IV.

SECONDARY EDUCATION OF BOYS.

(i) Schools and Scholars.

There are two systems of secondary education in India, viz., anglo-vernaeular and vernaecular. In general terms the aim of the former is to lead up to higher education in colleges and universities, while the latter is designed to be very largely a complete course in itself. In the anglo-vernaeular schools English is a compulsory subject, whereas in the vernaecular schools instruction is given through the medium of modern Indian languages, though English may be taken as an optional subject in some of these schools.

2. The following table gives the number of secondary schools of all types for boys and their enrolment in British India. It should, however, be noted that the figures given do not necessarily relate exclusively to pupils at the secondary stages as the numbers in primary departments are often included.

TABLE XXXII.

Secondary Schools for boys and their enrolment.

Year.	High schools.		English middle schools.		Vernacular middle schools.		All secondary schools.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
1926-27	2,444	744,444	3,201	349,233	4,728	621,084	10,373	1,715,661
1931-32	2,801	873,802	3,875	413,770	5,804	805,918	12,570	2,093,490
1936-37	3,242	1,022,580	4,123	460,717	5,609	738,570	12,075	2,221,807
Increase between 1927-32.	357	129,358	674	64,537	1,166	183,934	2,197	377,829
Increase (+) or decrease (-) between 1932-37.	+441	+148,778	+248	+40,047	-285	-67,348	+405	+128,377

3. While there was an increase of 2,197 secondary schools with an additional enrolment of 377,829 pupils in the previous quinquennium, there has been a rise of 405 schools and 128,377 pupils only during the quinquennium under review. These figures indicate that the tide of expansion has slowed down. This may be due largely to economic factors. The Madras report contains some interesting observations on this point:—

"The slow rate of progress may be partly accounted for by the continuance of economic depression and the growing volume of educated unemployment during the quinquennium under report. A further explanation may perhaps be found in the pre-

multiplicity of schools leads to inter-school rivalries, with the consequent decrease in efficiency"¹ and that "the time has already arrived to call a halt to this policy of expansion".²

The present position in Assam is also of interest. The number of secondary schools is rapidly increasing, but these schools are not usually efficient. It is suggested that "the harm which can be done by schools staffed with unqualified, untrained, underpaid teachers is so serious that Government and the members of the Legislature ought to give the subject their most earnest consideration. The existence of rival schools within a short distance of each other ought to be prohibited. If the management of the schools will not agree to combine on reasonable terms the recalcitrant school should be closed by a court order, instead of, as at present being allowed to attract boys by low rates of fees and laxity of discipline".³

Burma shows a large increase of 104 high schools. This is attributed to the promotion of some anglo-vernaacular middle schools to the status of high schools and the recognition of four new anglo-vernaacular high schools, but largely to the rise in the number of vernaacular high schools. The Burma report observes that "the remarkable rise in the number of vernaacular high schools is an undoubted sign of progress in vernacular education".⁴

In Madras, though the increase in the number of high schools was not so great as in the two preceding quinquennia there was an appreciable rise in the number of complete high schools, which rose from 344 to 359 during the quinquennium under review.

There has been an increase in the number of high schools in other major provinces also, while there is a decrease of 1 high school in Baluchistan and of 2 in other minor provinces.

7. The total number of boys reading in all high schools whether for boys or girls has risen by over 1½ lakhs from 862,513 in 1931-32 to 993,126 in 1936-37.

8. The statistics of English middle schools for boys are given in the following table.

¹ Delhi, page 66.

² Delhi, page 69.

³ Assam, page 36.

⁴ Burma, page 15.

growth of higher grade secondary schools both under private and public management serves in a measure as a set-off against the diminution in the number of middle schools".¹

It is somewhat surprising that while the number of English middle schools has risen by 11 in the United Provinces, their enrolment has fallen by 213. This may be attributable to economic factors.

11. The English middle stage acts merely as preparatory to the English high stage and pupils who join the English middle schools intend in most cases to go on to the high stage.

12. The following table gives the number of vernacular middle schools for boys and their enrolment.

TABLE XXXV.

Vernacular Middle schools for boys and their enrolment, by Provinces.

Province.	1931-32.			1936-37.			Increase (+) or decrease (-).		
	Schools for boys.	Enrol- ment inclusive of girls.	No. of boys in all Vernacular Middle schools for boys and girls.	Schools for boys.	Enrol- ment inclusive of girls.	No. of boys in all Vernacular Middle schools for boys and girls.	Schools for boys.	Enrol- ment inclusive of girls.	No. of boys in all Vernacular Middle schools for boys and girls.
Madras (a)..
Bombay (a).	54	3,958	3,911	42	3,107	3,020	-12	-870	-891
Bengal ..	710	86,560	86,557	760	92,058	92,111	+70	+5,523	+5,554
United Pro- vinces.	3,241	457,514	451,821	2,952	379,271	374,282	-249	-78,243	-77,550
Punjab ..	675	110,083	77,369	634	106,295	67,565	-121	-12,567	-9,744
Burma ..	129	13,515	13,500	103	12,618	12,397	(b)	(b)	(b)
Bihar ..	359	69,837	66,839	393	76,069	71,054	+35	+6,832	+4,225
Central Pro- vinces and Berar.	104	26,207	25,475	215	34,096	32,539	+21	+7,559	+7,064
Assam ..	169	23,149	21,015	196	24,603	24,218	-3	+454	+173
North-West Frontier Province	(b)	(b)	(b)	47	5,824	5,588	(b)	(b)	(b)
Sind (a) ..	(b)	(b)	(b)
Orissa
Coorg (a)
Delhi ..	32	3,143	3,143	29	2,803	2,803	-3	-335	-340
Ajmer-Mer- wara.	15	764	763	15	1,055	1,052	..	+291	+289
Baluchistan.	1	114	114	-1	-114	-114
Bangalore..	4	918	916	3	1,131	1,217	-1	+216	+301
Other Admi- nistered Areas.	1	128	129	-1	-128	-128
British India.	5,894	805,918	754,521	5,000	738,570	657,836	-284	-67,348	-66,685

¹ Madras, page 68.

(a) In Madras, Bombay, Sind and Coorg, figures are not available as middle classes are included in elementary schools.

(b) In 1931-32, Orissa formed part of Bihar. Hence no comparison has been made.

The decrease of 284 in the number of vernacular middle schools and of 67,348 in their enrolment over the whole of British India is disquieting.

The Punjab is responsible for the largest decrease of 289 vernacular middle schools during the quinquennium under review with a fall of 78,243 pupils. This large fall is attributable to the reduction, as a measure of retrenchment, of uneconomical and unnecessary lower middle schools to the primary status. Another reason for the large decrease in enrolment is reported to be the economic depression which has been prevalent throughout the quinquennium in the rural areas. It is, however, a matter for satisfaction that although there has been a fall in enrolment in secondary schools, average attendance has gone up in the three categories of schools; by 3·1 per cent to 94·5 per cent in high; by 2·7 per cent to 91·9 per cent in anglo-vernacular middle, and by 3·2 per cent to 85·8 per cent in vernacular middle schools.

The next greatest decline is in Burma with a fall of 121 vernacular middle schools. This is attributed to amalgamation of over-lapping schools, reduction in the grade of schools and withdrawal of recognition from schools owing to inefficiency or redundancy.

Bihar reports that the number of vernacular middle schools and of their pupils went on increasing up to 1926-27. But during the quinquennium 1927-32 there was a sharp decline. This decline has continued throughout the present quinquennium also, although the number of pupils has remained almost stationary. It is stated that the greatest increase in the number and enrolment of English middle schools synchronized with a corresponding decline in the number and enrolment of vernacular middle schools. The explanation of this is the conversion of a large proportion of the latter into the former for two reasons, *viz.*, that English teaching is desired by nearly every one seeking higher education and that the cost of an English middle school to the local body or committee concerned is less than that of a vernacular middle school.

Economic depression is reported to be largely responsible for the decrease in Delhi of 3 vernacular middle schools and 335 pupils. "Those belonging to the lower strata of society for whom these schools exist, could not afford even the low fees charged."¹

In Baluchistan, the fall in the number of all types of secondary schools and their enrolment is the direct result of the earthquake of 1935 which destroyed all the schools in Quetta. It is reported that the decrease is likely to be temporary, as it is hoped that the private schools in Quetta will shortly be reconstructed.

The most disturbing news comes from North Orissa where, it is stated, the vernacular middle school has become almost extinct and has been replaced by the English school.

13. The vernacular middle stage plays an important part in the education of the rural population in India. "There can be no doubt that of the two systems of secondary education—the anglo-vernacular and the vernacular, the latter system is more efficient and better adapted to the practical needs of the pupils."² The Bengal Report expresses the opinion that "only through a properly organised system of vernacular middle schools can any real progress be made in the education of the masses."³ This is corroborated by the

¹ Delhi, page 67.

² Bihar, page 58.

³ Bengal, page 47.

United Provinces Report which observes that "it is in these schools that the solution of the problems of finding a satisfactory system of general education may be found."¹

There is no doubt that the good vernacular middle school provides a form of practical training which is well suited to the needs of the average boy and the products of such schools are more readily absorbed into employment.

"Besides providing for the need for teachers and employment in the various local services, the intention of the vernacular middle system is to give boys a sound general education which will make them more efficient also in their ancestral occupations. Nor indeed does it appear that there is excessive unemployment among boys who have passed through the vernacular middle schools."²

14. The rapid decline in the number of vernacular middle schools and their enrolment and the steady increase in anglo-vernacular schools show that the drift to colleges and to unemployment is persisting while the country side is being impoverished.

The only way to check this drift is to improve and popularize the vernacular middle system.

15. The number of over-age pupils still continues to be large in the secondary as in the primary stage of education. The table below shows the extent to which such pupils are found in the various provinces. As in the last review in making these calculations, pupils over 17 years of age in the class immediately before matriculation, and those over 16, 15 and 14 years of age in the next three classes respectively, have been regarded as 'over-age'.

TABLE XXXVI.

'Overage' pupils (boys and girls) at the secondary stage, 1936-37.

Province.	Number of pupils (boys and girls) in the four senior classes of the secondary stage.	Number of pupils (boys and girls) 'over-age' in these classes.	Percentage of 'over-age' pupils to total number of pupils.
Madras ..	117,189	62,290	53.1
Bombay ..	46,062	37,212	80.8
Bengal..	164,080	56,550	34.6
United Provinces ..	85,327	52,628	61.7
Punjab ..	105,193	44,802	42.6
Burma..	26,096	19,674	72.9
Bihar ..	33,468	14,206	42.4
Central Provinces and Berar ..	16,655	12,657	76.0
Assam ..	14,019	4,880	34.7
North-West Frontier Province ..	8,193	3,365	41.1
Sind ..	9,857	7,028	71.8
Orissa ..	6,026	3,208	53.2
Coorg ..	928	507	54.6
Delhi ..	7,300	3,133	42.9
Ajmer-Merwara ..	2,371	1,551	65.4
Baluchistan ..	663	376	56.7
Bangalore ..	1,913	1,210	62.7
Other Administered Areas ..	2,974	1,587	54.4
British India ..	649,292	327,164	50.4

¹U. P., page 35.

² U. P., page 58.

16. It is gratifying to note that the percentage of 'over-age' pupils to the total number of pupils at the secondary stage has decreased from 56.78 to 50.4 in the whole of British India during the quinquennium under review. The number of such 'over-age' pupils, however, remains unduly large. "The main reasons for the presence of such pupils who, it is believed, abound in rural schools, are : slate admission due to the indifference and apathy of the average rural parent towards education and the stagnation which results from unsatisfactory progress as a consequence of irregular attendance or inaptitude of the pupil for literary studies or of inefficient teaching."¹

17. Some provinces are, however, taking steps to improve the situation. For example, in the United Provinces a maximum age limit for each class has been laid down which has been effective in removing over-age boys from classes which they have physically outgrown.

In Burma, the Secondary Schools Advisory Board recommended to Government in 1934-35 that a maximum school age should be introduced and in the last year of the quinquennium the Ministry of Education passed orders that with effect from the year 1945 no pupil should be allowed to remain in school after his 20th birthday. It is reported that some heads of schools are already taking action to exclude over-age pupils and it is hoped that the orders of the Ministry will have the effect of lowering the average school age, even before the over-age rule comes into operation.

The Punjab Report observes that the need for diverting a large number of over-age pupils to vocational and industrial pursuits is amply borne out by statistics and the necessity of an early reform in policy, system and teaching methods is emphasized. This is a matter to which the attention of other Provincial Governments should also be directed.

(ii) Secondary schools and their management.

18. The following tables show the high and English middle and vernacular-middle schools according to management.

¹Punjab, page 45.

TABLE XXXIX.

Vernacular Middle Schools for boys, by management, 1936-37.

Province.	Government.	District Board.	Municipal Board.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
Madras (a)
Bombay (a)
Bengal	7	..	31	4
United Provinces	8	660	32	62	18
Punjab	3	2,921	9	17	2
Burma	2	38	25	769	..
Bihar	81	2	18	2
Central Provinces and Berar.	..	7	360	20	4	2
Assam	18	172	12	15	1
North-West Frontier Province.	195	..	1	..
Sind (a)
Orissa	10	29	..	8	..
Coorg (a)
Delhi	29
Ajmer-Merwara	12	..	1	2	..
Baluchistan
Bangalore	3
Other Administered Areas.
British India	57	4,492	104	927	29
						5,609

(a) In Madras, Bombay, Sind and Coorg, all vernacular education is classified as elementary education.

19. Of 3,242 high schools for boys, 339 are maintained by Government, 199 by district boards, 122 by municipal boards and 2,582 by private bodies. The total number of English middle schools for boys is 4,123—94 under Government management, 671 under the management of district boards, 159 under that of municipal boards and 3,199 under private management. The distribution of vernacular middle schools according to management is as follows:—Government schools, 57; district board schools, 4,492; municipal board M5ECGI

schools, 104; and private schools, 956. These figures indicate that the great majority of English high and middle schools are privately managed while the vernacular middle schools are largely maintained by district boards.

20. In Bombay, some of the municipal schools were handed over to private management during the quinquennium under review. It is reported that "this tendency is to be welcomed as it has been found that municipal bodies do not prove to be efficient managers of secondary schools inasmuch as local politics are allowed to impinge upon purely educational questions in the conduct of these schools."¹ This is a serious and significant comment. The improved financial position has also allowed the number of aided schools in Bombay to increase, although the grant-in-aid given to most of the newly aided ones is very small. It has been the policy of the department before recognition is granted to a school, to insist that the school should be conducted by a responsible body or person, that the financial position of the school should be sound, and that there should be a real need for the school in the locality. Proprietary schools are not usually encouraged, but there are cases in which it has been found safe to recognise such schools. The increasing desire on the part of managements to secure recognition from the department has made it necessary for the department to be more strict in its requirements; and where possible and practicable the department is insisting upon the managements making proper provision in the form of an adequate salary scale and a provident fund scheme for the well-being of teachers.

Bengal has the largest number of unaided schools, which depend for their maintenance mainly on school fees augmented by a precarious income from other sources. It is this type of school which is generally staffed with unqualified and untrained teachers, and the instruction given is consequently much below standard.

In the United Provinces, anglo-vernacular institutions are maintained by Government to the extent of one in every district but the majority are aided schools maintained by private agencies. Vernacular middle schools are provided by rural and urban boards assisted by a contract grant from Government. There are also a certain number of aided vernacular middle schools in receipt of grant-in-aid from the boards. Aided schools are required to be managed by a registered body. Many of these schools unfortunately live from hand to mouth and can only afford the bare minimum of equipment. It is reported that "the poverty of the schools is reflected in the poverty of the intellectual endowment of the products they turn out, and one at least of the causes of educated unemployment is inefficient schools."² It is, however, satisfactory to note that the relations of teachers with their managements are gradually improving.

In Bihar, Government maintained 19 high schools almost throughout the quinquennium, the Government High School at Pusa being deprovincialized so lately as in January 1937. These schools were established to set a standard and to supply models for other schools. As compared with private high schools

¹Bombay, page 66.

²U. P., page 41.

they are expensive institutions, mainly because they are staffed by trained teachers on incremental scales of pay which no private school can afford. They are generally superior in discipline and efficiency to non-government schools; but it is a welcome sign that the gap in this respect between these and the best schools in the latter category is narrowing. The financial condition of most of the unaided and some of the aided high schools is, however, reported to be precarious, except in the case of the few schools with large numbers on the roll. As regards English middle schools, all the district boards, except the Ranchi district board, have now taken over the control of such schools, and the number of such boards has increased by four during the quinquennium. Among the municipalities only five so far have assumed such control.

In Sind, the largest increase both in the number of institutions and the pupils in them has occurred among the privately managed schools, both aided and unaided. Some of these institutions are really proprietary in their character although they claim to be run by boards of managers. These boards, however, in some cases have no stake in the schools and possess no powers over the staff.

In Delhi also, private agencies maintain the largest number of anglo-vernacular schools. Many of these schools are doing good work under efficient management but there are some in which conditions are reported to be far from satisfactory. "The existence of a large number of private schools over which effective control cannot be exercised by the department is undoubtedly one of the main reasons for the low standard of the quality of secondary education."¹ Efforts have, however, been made to improve conditions by tightening the rules of recognition and insisting on the managing bodies being registered.

The cause of backwardness in Ajmer-Merwara is reported to be mainly the apathy of the District Board which does not run a single rural secondary school. Unlike any other province 80 per cent of the vernacular secondary schools are run by the Government. "Even after making allowances for the sparse population of Ajmer-Merwara, the number of secondary schools in this province does not compare at all favourably with that in Delhi."²

(iii) *The machinery of control.*

21. As stated in the last Review, "unfortunately, the secondary system has suffered for many years from a duality of control by Government and the university, especially in the award of recognition which implies permission to present pupils for matriculation."³

22. The difficulties due to the dual control over secondary education of the university and the department became more marked in Bombay during the quinquennium under review. Consequently in 1935 negotiations began between the university and the department which resulted in the passing of a number of new university statutes governing the inspection and affiliation of high schools by the university. It is hoped that these statutes will remove

¹Delhi, page 70.

²Ajmer-Merwara, page 39.

³ 10th Q. R., page 107.

causes for friction between the university and the department in regard to the inspection and affiliation of high schools. The university, which is concerned only with high schools, has consented to put automatically on its list of affiliated schools all high schools which have been recognised by the department. Moreover, machinery has been devised whereby any difference of opinion between the university and the department as to the eligibility of a school to receive recognition will be decided by a joint inspection by the university and the department. At present, therefore, it can be said that there exists a spirit of co-operation between the university and the department which is certain to benefit secondary education as a whole in the Province.

In Bengal, control over secondary education is divided between Government, the University of Calcutta and the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, Dacca. The control of this Board extends over the intermediate colleges and high schools in the Dacca University area and over the Islamic intermediate colleges and high madrassahs in the province. The Board, having such a small area to control, started with a heavy handicap. In the early years of its existence when an attempt was made to raise the standards, it was found that educational institutions in the town of Dacca were being rapidly emptied and the pupils were moving away to schools in the neighbourhood outside the five-mile radius of the Board's sphere of influence. It was hoped that the Board would effect improvement in intermediate and secondary education in the spirit of the recommendations made by the Sadler Commission, but for the reasons given, it has not succeeded in achieving the object in view.

The Syndicate of the Calcutta University exercises control and supervision over high school education in the provinces of Bengal and Assam, excluding the Dacca University area. It recognises schools as qualified to send up candidates for its matriculation examination which leads on to all higher university examinations. The courses of study for the two top classes of high schools are laid down by the University, but the University possesses no machinery for the inspection of schools. The department of education controls the curricula of studies of the lower forms, and is responsible for the distribution of grants-in-aid to aided institutions and for the inspection of both aided and unaided schools. It is stated that this dual control is admittedly unsatisfactory as there has been a lack of unity and continuity of policy in the past and there has often been a want of co-operation and understanding between the two controlling agencies. For nearly two decades now, attempts have been made to create a single authority which should recognise schools, distribute grants, prescribe curricula and control high school examinations. But no solution has yet been arrived at and secondary education, unreformed and unrelated to the cultural and political needs of the people, has been allowed to muddle on as best as it can. Efforts in this direction have not, however, been given up, and towards the close of the quinquennium under review the Ministry of Education communicated to the Calcutta University a draft of a Secondary Education Bill for their consideration.

In the United Provinces, there is a Board of High School and Intermediate Education which controls English education as far as examinations and the prescription of courses are concerned and is also the recognised authority for

admitting institutions to high school and intermediate status. Thus the department has no responsibility any longer in this respect. English schools are, however, recognised up to the middle school standard by the circle inspectors, who are also responsible for the inspection of institutions up to the high school stage. The Board is a statutory body of 37 members with the Director of Public Instruction as *ex officio* chairman but with a majority of elected members representing different interests including, of course, a majority of educationists.

In the Punjab, the School Board deals with all questions relating to the matriculation examination and reports thereon to the Syndicate of the University.

In Burma, there is a Secondary Schools Board, the main functions of which are to control the English and Anglo-vernacular high school and middle school examinations and to advise the Director of Public Instruction on all matters relating to secondary education. This arrangement appears to be working satisfactorily.

In Bihar, the authority which accords recognition to and exercises administrative control over high schools and intermediate classes attached to high schools is the Board of Secondary Education, composed of officials and non-officials the Director of Public Instruction being the president *ex officio*. The divisional inspector is the agent of the Board for the ordinary inspection of all recognised high schools although the Board can have a school inspected by a special board of inspectors and always does so when recognising a new school or withdrawing recognition from a school already recognised. The Board also decides on the grant-in-aid to be given to each school. The academic control over high schools, so far as the courses of study and text-books are concerned, is, of course, exercised by the University through its matriculation examination.

In the Central Provinces, secondary education is administered by the Board of High School Education, which is doing useful work. Certain modifications in the courses already prescribed for high schools were found desirable and with this end in view, the Board appointed a Curriculum Revision Committee in 1928 to scrutinize the curriculum prescribed for middle and high school classes and suggest modifications therein. This Committee prepared a curriculum for high and middle schools and recommended the group system of subjects for the High School Certificate Examination and also the introduction of several new subjects, such as handwork, wood and metal work, art, commerce and agriculture. These recommendations were brought into effect at the High School Certificate Examination of 1936.

As the relations of the department of education and the university were not well-defined in Sind, the authorities of some new schools started to deal directly with Bombay University for the purpose of getting their schools affiliated for the matriculation examination.

The undesirable results of such an indefinite situation soon revealed themselves and led to an arrangement between the University and the department which is working satisfactorily on the whole.

In Delhi also, the secondary school system has a duality of control. Recognition so far as the middle school standard is concerned is given by the education

department but it is the Board of Secondary Education which recognises the high department. The Board also conducts the School Leaving Certificate Examination. The curricula of the high school classes are laid down by the Board while those of the middle classes are prescribed by the department. Vernacular middle education in the provinces is controlled on the administrative side by the education department although pupils sit for the Punjab Vernacular Final Examination. The department inspects all secondary schools although the high departments of secondary schools are open to inspection by panels appointed by the Board of Secondary Education.

The idea of constituting Boards to look after secondary education originated from the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission, the idea being to relieve universities of the function of controlling intermediate and high school education, so that they might concentrate their attention on their immediate function. The Delhi Board was thus constituted on the assumption that, as provided for in the Delhi University Act, the intermediate stage would be removed from the jurisdiction of the University as soon as it developed into a unitary teaching University. This change, however, has not so far been brought about. The general functions of the Board in theory, therefore, are to regulate, supervise and improve secondary education, but in practice it is little more than an examining body. In addition to conducting the High School Examination, the Board is entrusted with the function of prescribing courses. The distribution of grants-in-aid is entirely in the hands of the department.

There is also a Board of High School and Intermediate Education for Rajputana (including Ajmer-Merwara), Central India and Gwalior which prescribes courses of studies for the high school examination and recognises the high school section. It has the right to have high schools inspected by its own nominees.

The oldest Board of this kind is perhaps that of Madras, which was started as early as 1911. This Board conducts the School-Leaving Certificate Examination. There are also District Secondary Education Boards in Madras. But it is reported that "the normal state of these Boards is one of inactivity and indifference. The members, as a rule, take little or no interest in the exercise of the advisory functions entrusted to them. It is the opinion of almost all the inspecting officers, that no useful purpose is served by the continued existence of these Boards and that secondary education will be none the worse for their abolition."¹

23. The position as regards the dual control of secondary education as described above is anomalous, and as a result secondary education in this country has suffered considerably. The machinery which controls this type of education should be made coherent and effective and its powers and duties should be well-defined. Unless this is done, no appreciable improvement can be expected.

(iv) Expenditure.

24. The following table gives the main expenditure figures on secondary schools for boys in British India.

¹Madras, page 81.

26. Burma shows a decrease of Rs. 5,34,294 in expenditure on secondary schools for boys as compared with the expenditure in the last quinquennium. This is mainly due to the "drastic retrenchment in all branches of administration."¹ In consequence, "financial difficulties continued to worry the managers of the anglo-vernacular aided schools. Some schools had to be removed from the recognised list owing to financial failure and many others are on the verge of bankruptcy".² It is, however, gratifying to note that Government recognises the need for more liberal treatment of aided schools and proposes to pay maintenance grants at an enhanced rate, i.e., at the rate of two-thirds instead of half of the difference between approved expenditure and fee income as soon as funds can be made available.

In Baluchistan, the decrease of Rs. 69,235 in expenditure is attributable to the disastrous earthquake of 1935 which destroyed all the schools in Quetta while in other minor areas the decrease of Rs. 1,98,725 is apparently due to retrenchment. The Baluchistan Report states that it will be many years before the economic and educational position of the inhabitants can compare with that which obtained before the earthquake.

27. The following tables show the comparative expenditure of provinces on different kinds of secondary schools.

TABLE XLII.

Average annual cost of a secondary school for boys, by provinces, 1936-37.

Province.	High school.	English Middle school.	Vernacular Middle school.
Madras	Rs. 20,609	Rs. 6,396	Rs. (a)
Bombay	24,199	2,642	(a)
Bengal	9,808	1,601	1,001
United Provinces	28,093	5,569	2,476
Punjab	18,072	6,196	2,063
Burma	14,017	11,213	2,131
Bihar	12,418	2,378	1,733
Central Provinces and Berar	13,210	6,399	2,430
Assam	12,974	1,615	1,382
North-West Frontier Province	19,448	8,367	2,388
Sind	24,557	2,726	(a)
Orissa	16,105	2,561	1,628
Coorg	30,053	..	(a)
Delhi	20,729	6,892	2,166
Ajmer-Merwara	24,152	4,600	2,530
Baluchistan	21,078	8,879	..
Bangalore	39,344	8,467	5,433
Other Administered Areas	21,678	6,787	6,609
British India	15,630	2,911	2,166

(a) In Madras, Bombay, Sind and Coorg, all vernacular education is classified as elementary education.

¹ Burma, page 1.

² Burma, page 18.

TABLE XLIII.

*Average annual cost per pupil in an anglo-vernacular secondary school for boys,
by sources, 1936-37.*

Province.	From Govern- ment funds.	From Board funds.	From fees.	From other sources.	Total annual cost per pupil.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	10.0	7.3	24.6	5.4	47.3
Bombay	13.3	1.6	36.4	9.8	61.3
Bengal	4.2	.8	21.4	3.9	30.3
United Provinces	33.3	1.6	22.6	7.3	64.8
Punjab	12.1	3.3	20.3	3.8	39.5
Burma	25.9	8.5	20.7	12.4	67.5
Bihar	5.2	4.0	15.8	3.2	28.2
Central Provinces and Berar	23.8	3.0	25.5	7.1	59.4
Assam	13.5	.7	13.4	2.3	29.9
North-West Frontier Province	23.0	2.2	12.0	5.1	43.2
Sind	15.2	6.2	37.2	5.0	64.5
Orissa	10.7	6.3	17.8	3.1	38.0
Coorg	53.8	..	16.3	4	69.5
Delhi	14.8	2.1	23.3	9.1	49.3
Ajmer-Merwara	25.5	2.2	24.8	11.1	63.7
Baluchistan	32.5	6.8	12.4	3.5	55.2
Bangalore	17.7	..	28.0	24.8	70.5
Other Administered Areas	14.2	2.4	23.0	9.4	49.6
British India	11.6	3.1	22.2	5.4	42.3

TABLE XLIV.

Average annual cost per pupil in a vernacular middle school for boys, by sources, 1936-37.

Province.		From Government funds.	From Board funds.	From fees.	From other sources.	Total annual cost per pupil.	
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Madras (a)	
Bombay (a)	
Bengal	0.9	4.3	5.8	2.5	13.5
United Provinces	11.4	4.7	4.4	0.5	21.0
Punjab	11.6	3.1	1.2	0.1	16.0
Burma	0.9	17.3	0.2	0.2	18.6
Bihar	10.0	3.4	0.7	14.1
Central Provinces and Berar	3.7	8.1	0.7	0.2	12.7
Assam	3.0	5.0	0.5	0.2	8.7
North-West Frontier Province	18.0	1.0	0.1	..	19.1
Sind (a)
Orissa	6.3	6.2	0.3	0.4	13.2
Coorg (a)
Delhi	17.2	3.8	1.2	0.1	22.3
Ajmer-Merwara	26.1	3.0	3.5	3.3	35.9
Baluchistan
Bangalore	5.7	8.7	14.4
Other Administered Areas
British India	8.8	6.1	1.4	0.2	16.5

(a) In Madras, Bombay, Sind and Coorg, all vernacular education is classified as elementary education.

It will be seen from the foregoing tables that the rates of expenditure vary considerably from province to province.

28. The table below indicates the average annual fee per pupil in anglo-vernacular and vernacular secondary schools for boys.

(v) Medium of instruction.

29. The Indian languages spoken in the provinces are now gradually taking the place of English as the media of instruction in secondary schools.

In Madras, this movement gained further ground in the period under report, as may be seen from the fact that the number of high schools which used the vernacular as the medium of instruction in non-language subjects in the high school forms rose to 185 in 1937 from 102 in 1932. The number of complete high schools is 359 and 51 per cent of them have adopted the local language as the medium of instruction and examination. It is reported by many district officers that but for the difficulty of technical terminology in science subjects and the lack of suitable text-books in other non-language subjects, this policy would have been used even more widely. Apart from these difficulties, the continuance of English as the medium of instruction in colleges and the use of English as medium of competitive examinations for Government services explains partly the preference for English over the vernacular medium in the secondary schools which still retain English as the medium of instruction. A special difficulty in the increased use of Indian languages in the high school forms is experienced in bi-lingual and multi-lingual districts, and this accounts for the very small progress made in this direction in such areas. Reports agree, however, that although the linguistic difficulty is a formidable obstacle, it may not be insurmountable. Rules have accordingly been framed in Madras that all instruction in non-language subjects up to the end of the middle school course (i.e., for the first eight years of school life) should be in the mother tongue.

In Bombay, also, the most noticeable feature in connexion with the teaching and work in secondary schools during this quinquennium has been the increased use of Indian languages as the media of instruction. By the end of the quinquennium, with the exception of a few schools in Bombay, which had special reasons for retaining English, nearly all secondary schools used the mother-tongue as the medium of instruction for history and geography and classical languages, while mathematics and science are usually taught through English only in the higher classes. This is due to the fact that no definite agreement has been reached with regard to the equivalence of technical terms in the mother-tongue. It is hoped that this increased use of the mother-tongue will not only facilitate a higher standard being reached in all subjects of the curriculum but also render the treatment of these subjects more realistic and rational. On the other hand, these changes are likely to involve a lowering of the standard of English in secondary schools.

In Bengal, the medium of instruction in high schools is nominally English but in practice, except in a few schools, instruction is usually given in a mixture of English and the mother-tongue of the pupils. In the English middle schools, English is a compulsory subject of study, but is not used as the medium of instruction. English is now also taught in all vernacular middle schools, theoretically as an optional subject but in practice all pupils in these schools take up English.

In the United Provinces, the medium of instruction in almost all schools is the vernacular up to the high school stage. In classes IX and X its use is not compulsory but permissive, and permission is never refused. The Inspector of Schools, Lucknow, states "it is reported by all headmasters that with the introduction of vernaculars as medium of instruction boys take a greater and more intelligent interest in the subjects but the standard of English has, as a result gone down considerably. The quality of books in the vernacular has improved with the result that the teaching through the vernacular medium has become more efficient."¹ There is a departmental order that the Indian language used must be such as can be understood by both Hindi and Urdu speaking students but this is difficult to carry out and owing to the different scripts blackboard work has generally to be either in English or in the Roman script. "The script is indeed the main difficulty and it already seems certain that before long a single script will have to be adopted."²

In the Punjab, the vernacular medium has been used for some time in middle stage; and candidates for the matriculation examination have the option of writing their answers in history and geography papers in English or their mother-tongue. In the case of oriental and modern Indian languages, the answers are to be written in the language of the candidate.

In Burma, the University decided to make Burmese a compulsory subject for matriculation with effect from the year 1935. This decision forced Government to reconsider its policy with regard to the recognition of vernacular languages and in the year 1936 the Ministry decreed that with effect from the year 1938 Burmese should be a compulsory subject for all candidates in the anglo-vernacular and English high school examinations. It is recognised that it is important that all residents of Burma should have a knowledge of the national language, and greater attention is now being paid to the study of Burmese. It is reported that within the next decade it is likely to become the *lingua franca* of Burma.

In the last Quinquennial Review of Bihar, it was mentioned that the results of the experiment tried in some high schools in the way of using local languages instead of English as the medium of instruction in the four highest classes were inconclusive. In 1932, a report was submitted to Government on the further results of the prolongation of this experiment, but these were still considered inconclusive. The experiment, which consisted of having one English section and one vernacular section for the teaching of history and geography in the four upper classes of such high schools as have these classes duplicated, is being tried in twenty schools. It is gratifying to note that the difficulty of obtaining suitable text-books in the Indian languages is gradually disappearing.

The Central Provinces Report states that the medium of instruction in high schools is the Indian language commonly spoken in the area in which the school is situated. Where, however, there is a demand for English as the

¹ U.P., page 47.

² U.P., page 48.

medium, Government schools are permitted to have English-medium sections in the high school classes. Non-Government schools also provide similar facilities. Of the 54 non-government high schools in the province, 30 provide for instruction entirely in the vernacular medium, 16 in the English medium only and 8 provide instruction in both vernacular and English media. Though the use of the mother-tongue as the medium of instruction is extending especially in newly opened high schools, the number of schools in which English is the medium has also increased.

The Assam Report observes that although it seems impossible to stamp out the use of "Keys", the introduction of the vernacular medium of instruction will reduce their use considerably.

In Sind also, the gradual adoption of the local languages as the media for teaching in high schools has been a noteworthy feature of the quinquennium under report. Students are now given the option of answering all papers, except those in English, in their mother-tongue and a large number of candidates are taking advantage of it. Sind reports that as a result of this English in schools might deteriorate and suggests that special attention should be paid to this subject in future.

In Delhi, in the high classes the medium of instruction is English, although candidates have the option of answering question papers in history, geography, economics and domestic science in their own language. The demand for using an Indian language as the medium of instruction in mathematics is also gaining strength. The medium of instruction in the middle section of anglo-vernacular secondary schools is the mother tongue.

The Board of High School and Intermediate Education, Rajputana (including Ajmer-Merwara), Central India and Gwalior, has also permitted candidates for the High School Examination to answer questions in English or in an Indian language in all subjects other than English.

30. There is no doubt that the question of the medium of instruction in India is one of vital importance. Although the experiment of making modern Indian languages the media of instruction has been tried by almost all the provinces, it has so far met only with qualified success. This is evidently due to the lack of suitable literature and text-books in these languages, the paucity of competent and well-trained teachers, the multiplicity of languages in the same area, the diversity of scripts, and the absence of equivalents for technical terms and phrases. These difficulties, however serious, will no doubt be surmounted in time, as it is generally recognised that young people are handicapped in thinking clearly and expressing themselves intelligibly when they are taught through the medium of a foreign language.

(vi) Teachers and teaching.

31. The following table shows the number of trained teachers employed in secondary schools.

TABLE XLVI.

Men teachers in secondary schools.

Province.	Teachers in secondary schools.						Annual output of teachers.			
	Total No. of teachers.		No. of trained teachers.		Percentage of trained teachers.		1932.		1937.	
	1932.	1937.	1932.	1937.	1932.	1937.	Holding degree.	Holding diploma.	Holding degrec.	Holding diploma.
Madras ..	9,618	9,839	7,850	8,337	81·6	84·7	277	1,088	316	724
Bombay ..	5,530	6,662	976	1,291	17·6	22·8	62	100	85	134
Bengal ..	25,157	27,025	4,956	5,592	19·7	20·7	120	4	210	..
United Provinces	9,752	10,753	6,393	7,227	65·6	67·2	140	88	163	82
Punjab ..	22,847	21,980	20,018	19,718	87·6	89·7	76	318	84	137
Burma ..	6,657	5,335	3,763	3,729	67·5	69·9	..	7
Bihar ..	6,653	7,306	3,495	3,978	53·1	54·4	1	60	8	41
Central Provinces and Berar.	4,713	5,373	3,220	3,775	68·3	70·2	21	67	25	45
Assam ..	2,718	3,324	1,115	1,297	41·0	39·0	24	..
North-West Frontier Province.	1,532	1,768	1,176	1,413	76·8	80·3	2	..	4	..
Sind ..	(a)	1,037	(a)	181	(a)	16·5	(a)	(a)	6	40
Orissa ..	(a)	1,408	(a)	1,039	(a)	70·8	(a)	(a)	..	21
Coorg ..	36	41	36	39	100	95·1	1	..
Delhi ..	711	803	633	669	75·0	82·8
Ajmer-Merwara	281	348	123	235	43·8	67·5	..	22	..	2
Baluchistan ..	162	79	127	63	78·4	67·1
Bangalore ..	192	216	119	150	61·9	69·4	10
Other Administered Areas.	388	367	143	148	36·9	40·3
British India ..	95,777	102,719	54,033	58,871	56·4	57·3	699	1,744	925	1,246

(a) In 1932, Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

The percentage of trained men teachers in secondary schools has risen from 56·4 in 1932 to 57·3 in 1937 in the whole of British India, and teaching in the schools has generally shown some improvement, although complaints are still found in some of the provincial reports.

32. At the close of the period under review, trained teachers in Madras constituted 84·7 per cent of the total number of teachers employed in secondary schools for boys as against 81·6 per cent in the previous quinquennium. There

has also been a substantial reduction in the number of trained teachers of elementary grade employed in secondary schools. It is reported that "the general increase in the number of trained and qualified teachers of all grades and the rapid replacement of teachers of the elementary grade with higher qualified teachers has led to marked improvement in the adequacy and suitability of the staff in secondary schools for boys"¹ but "though there has been an appreciable improvement in the staffing of secondary schools in general, the reports of district officers show that in some districts temporary appointment of untrained teachers on low salaries is too frequently resorted to by private management as a measure of economy".¹

In Bombay, the percentage of trained teachers has gone up from 17·6 to 22·8. This is attributed to the increased output of trained teachers from the Secondary Training College, Bombay, and to the opening of the Maharani Training College, Kolhapur, many of whose students obtain posts in the Presidency. Another satisfactory feature is the increase in the percentage of graduate teachers from 43·7 in 1931-32 to 47·6 in 1936-37 and it is to be noted that among the recognised and aided schools, with the exception of district local board and municipal schools, nearly 50 per cent. of the teachers are graduates.

In Bengal, "the old belief which was generally prevalent that teaching was a profession which demanded only a natural enthusiasm for the work and demanded no special apprenticeship in training seems to be discarded now; school authorities are now demanding that only trained graduates should be appointed as teachers in schools. But even to-day, a trained graduate is a rarity in the majority of Bengal high schools"². At the end of the quinquennium, the average number of trained teachers in a high school was only 1·8 of whom only 1·0 was a trained graduate.

One of the reasons for the poor quality of teachers in secondary schools in Bengal is that they are miserably paid and are compelled to seek other ways of augmenting their incomes. Most of them consequently undertake as much private teaching work as they can obtain. "Their energies are sapped by this dull business of coaching pupils daily over long hours and they have hardly any time or surplus energy left for preparing their school lessons or for trying to interest boys in the classroom and hold their wandering attention. Classroom teaching thus tends to become more and more lifeless and dull."³. Another obstacle in the way of improving the quality of teachers arises from the fact that the facilities available for the training of teachers in this province are very small. There are only two training colleges which do not turn out annually more than 150 trained men. "If facilities for training a larger number of men are not made available, it will be years before the Bengal schools can have even 25 per cent trained teachers"³.

In the United Provinces, it is stated that "while better qualified and better trained teachers are joining the profession the results do not reflect this to any

¹ Madras, page 74.

² Bengal, page 51.

³ Bengal, page 53.

great extent. Mere mechanical teaching is certainly better, but the influence of teachers on students is not apparent. This is largely what is wrong with secondary education—the lack of conscious direction behind the teaching—so that it is not informed with a real ideal aiming at a full education in the real sense".¹

The Punjab reports that the persistent policy of the department in urging the employment in recognised schools of a large number of competent teachers has met with great success. In 1926-27, 70 per cent of the teachers employed in secondary schools, were trained : in 1931-32, 87·6 per cent and in 1936-37, 89·7 per cent were trained and certificated. If 703 teachers, who possess special departmental certificates be excluded from the total number of teachers' classes as untrained, the percentage of qualified and competent teachers rises to 92·7. Some improvement is reported in the pay, position and prospects of teachers employed in schools recognised under the new rules introduced in 1933. The enforcement of the rules of service and the execution of agreements between the teachers and the school authorities under the new rules have also had a salutary effect. "It is disturbing, however, to note that the payment of salary in many schools is still irregular and unpunctual. The position and security of tenure of teachers in older schools continue to be in the same sad state as before. The graded scales of salary exist in name only, and increments depend solely on the whims of the managing committees or on the personal influence of the teacher. Startling variations exist in the salaries of individuals, and nepotism and favouritism are reported to be rampant in some schools. The maximum amount of work is extracted from the teachers with the result that no time is left for extra-mural activities. Dismissal from service on flimsy grounds and as a result of personal prejudice are still not uncommon. The so-called voluntary contributions to the managing committee funds by forcing teachers to sign the acquittance roll for a higher sum than is actually received is reported to be a common evil".² It is, however, gratifying that "the eradication of these malpractices is under the serious consideration of the department".²

In spite of these drawbacks, an improvement in teaching and in the quality of the teacher is discernible and teachers are stated to be evincing a keener interest in their work. Their participation in daily games, social clubs, school excursions and scout camps is a matter for commendation. Increasing attention is being devoted to the teaching of science and vernacular subjects.

On the other hand, Burma reports that "in anglo-vernacular schools, though 87 per cent of the teachers are now professionally qualified, there are perceptible signs of improvement in a minority of the schools only. In many the traditional methods still obtain and teaching is a monotonous, soul-killing process, which causes a sort of mental paralysis in the pupils. Geography and history are still taught by giving voluminous notes to be learnt by heart, mathematics is an unrealistic manipulation of figures and symbols and English is often reduced to verbal memoriter work"³. This unsatisfactory state of

¹ U.P., page 46.

² Punjab, page 47.

³ Burma, page 16.

affairs is attributed to a large extent to lack of supervision in the class room. It is reported that early in 1936, the Director of Public Instruction drew the attention of heads of schools to the necessity for thorough class-room inspection, and it is suggested that "the general level of efficiency might be raised if inspectors had time for more thorough and more frequent inspections and if the Director could devote more time to touring"¹.

"In many of the vernacular high schools in Burma there has, however, been improvement. Modern text-books in Burmese are now available in most subjects and teaching methods are slowly becoming more intelligent and realistic. Though the teachers have lower qualifications than the teachers in the anglo-veracular schools, they show far more enthusiasm in their work. In the vernacular middle schools also there have been signs of improvement"¹.

In Bihar, neither the public nor the inspecting officers have any high opinion as to the general efficiency of high schools. One inspecting officer writes : "The level of efficiency of these schools is generally not high owing to a variety of causes. Growth in the number of high schools competing with one another, low and irregular payments to the staff in the case of many non-government schools which is difficult to check, competitive lowering of the standard of admission and promotion, poor libraries, insufficient teaching appliances, too many private tuitions taking up the time and energy of the teachers, the want of hostels and poverty and malnutrition of pupils are some of these causes"². So far as the middle schools are concerned, most inspectors report unfavourably on the teaching. One inspector remarks that no improvement of the condition of middle schools is possible unless a stricter method of recognition be adopted and effective steps are taken to ensure that the recommendations of the departmental officers are carried out within a reasonable time.

In the Central Provinces, the percentage of trained teachers in secondary schools for boys has risen from 68.3 to 70.2. But it is reported that "defective distribution of teachers, frequent transfers and unsatisfactory conditions of service have produced an adverse effect on the standard of instructions in the Nagpur and Chattisgarh circles".³ In other circles, some improvement in the quality of work is noticeable.

The N. W. F. Province Report also states that the growth in the number of pupils has been accompanied not only by an increase in the number of teachers but also by an improvement in their qualifications.

In Sind, the percentage of trained teachers in non-government schools is reported to be very low. The managements realize fully the superiority of a trained teacher over an untrained one, and are anxious to depute for training a fair proportion of their staff to the Secondary "Teachers" College, Bombay, but at present only a limited amount of accommodation is reserved in that College for Sind teachers. It is stated that "under the circumstances a separate Secondary Teachers' College for Sind is an immediate necessity and

¹ Burma, page 17.

² Bihar, page 67.

³ C. P., page 38.

the matter is receiving consideration".¹ In the meantime the managements are insisting upon their teachers passing at least the Secondary Teacher Certificate Examination, and a growing number of teachers appear every year for it.

In Delhi, the teaching staff employed under the local bodies is as stable and secure as the staff in Government schools, but in privately managed schools tenure and stability of service are generally insecure. To improve matters, proper agreements between the managements and all permanent teachers have been introduced during the quinquennium under report. The position, as it stood at the end of this period, with regard to the qualifications of the staff employed in secondary schools is reported to be very encouraging and instructional conditions generally are decidedly better.

In Ajmer-Merwara, the percentage of trained teachers is reported to be lowest in high schools, and highest, about 91 per cent., in vernacular middle schools. But the quality of the instruction given in the latter has not kept pace with the number of teachers trained.

33. It is regrettable that there has been some fall in the percentage of trained teachers in some provinces. In Assam, it has fallen from 41·0 to 39·0, in Coorg from 100 to 95·1, and in Baluchistan, from 78·4 to 67·1.

(vii) Accommodation and equipment.

34. Although the period under review was one of financial depression, some improvements are recorded in the accommodation and equipment of secondary schools in some provinces. The general state of things, however, is still far from satisfactory.

35. In Madras, the number of board schools which possess buildings of their own has increased from 153 to 176, but in the case of other schools there has been little or no improvement in this respect. This is attributed to the restriction on grants-in-aid during the early parts of the period under report. Though there was some improvement in the equipment on the whole, the reports of the district educational officers disclose wide variations in the conditions obtaining in different districts and it is suggested that there is distinct scope for further improvement. Very few schools have gardens or museums worth the name, and this appears to be due to an imperfect appreciation of their educational value. "Teachers as well as managements have yet to realise the importance of maintaining well-kept gardens and well-equipped museums".²

In Bengal, "not only is the quality of teaching poor in the schools, but in the majority of the secondary schools the school furniture and the equipment are of a most rudimentary character....Very few of the schools have proper equipments for teaching; there are very few charts and pictures in the Bengal schools".³ No attempts appear to have yet been made to improve conditions.

In the United Provinces few additions have been made to Government institutions during the quinquennium owing to the financial situation. Many require considerable extensions and some entirely new buildings. Several

¹ Sind, page 49.

² Madras, page 72.

³ Bengal, page 54.

aided institutions have, however, erected buildings either with or without the assistance of grants. Extensions to the buildings of some schools were also carried out. The complaint still continues that Government schools are starved in respect of equipment because the money that is available is given to aided schools, especially to the newly recognised, in order to enable them to reach the required standard. In Government schools the chief need is for replacement of furniture. Still essential requirements have been met, and there are signs everywhere of efforts to improve matters in regard to the provision of those items which may be classed as desirable rather than essential. A few schools have obtained cinema projectors and some have lanterns and epidiascopes: a very few have wireless sets. Schools museums are met with here and there but there is a lack of enterprise in supplying wants of this nature through local initiative. It is also stated that schools wait for suggestions and seldom launch out on experiments of their own.

The Punjab reports that new buildings or additions to existing ones could not be taken in hand to any great extent during the quinquennium owing to financial stringency. High school buildings under the control of Government and local bodies are generally satisfactory, but several privately managed schools still have unsuitable, insanitary and incommodious buildings. The case of vernacular schools is reported to be deplorable. A large majority of them continue to be housed in unsuitable, structurally dangerous and insanitary buildings. The Ambala Division, however, reports the construction, during the quinquennium, of 17 new buildings for middle schools, 9 for high schools and 3 hostels, and of extensions to 35 middle schools, 14 high schools and 3 hostels at an aggregate cost of Rs. 1,52,207. The Management of C. M. Z. High School, Gujrat, erected a new building at a cost of Rs. 1,00,000 during 1936-37.

In Burma, no grants were provided during the quinquennium for building Government or aided schools; but about a dozen building projects, which could not be delayed, were completed with the sanction of the education department. An allotment of Rs. 1,50,000 has now been provided for building grants to aided schools. This amount will be distributed amongst the schools which have already completed their projects.

In Bihar, the earthquake of 1934 destroyed or seriously damaged the buildings of many high schools in three divisions. Most of these buildings have been reconstructed or repaired, and the provision of new premises for other schools is also reported. In some places, the building operations extended over the whole quinquennium.

In the Central Provinces, owing to financial stringency, no new construction of school buildings or extension of existing buildings was undertaken by Government. A grant of Rs. 10,443 was, however, made to the managers of four aided schools.

In the N. W. F. Province, new buildings were constructed for the Government High School at Hangu at a cost of Rs. 38,175 and for the District Board Anglo-Vernacular Middle School, Baffa, at a cost of Rs. 32,000. The Government contributed a total sum of Rs. 1,11,564 as building grants to aided anglo-

vernacular schools during the quinquennium and it is reported that now almost all aided high and anglo-vernacular middle schools in the province are better housed than was the case in the last quinquennium. Several vernacular middle schools were also either newly built or extended. Attention has also been directed towards the improvement of school furniture and science apparatus in the Government High Schools; and in several cases special grants for the supply of equipment have been sanctioned for aided secondary schools. Radio sets have been installed at some schools in the province.

(viii) *Vocational and manual training in secondary schools.*

36. The Hartog Committee was justified in observing that "the present type of high and English middle schools has established itself so strongly that other forms of education are opposed or mistrusted and there is a marked tendency to regard the passage from the lowest primary class to the highest class of a high school as the normal procedure for every pupil".¹ In consequence, large and increasing numbers of pupils prolong unduly a purely literary form of education with the result that not only are the classics of universities and high schools unduly congested, but the pupils themselves in most cases become unfitted for, and indeed averse from, practical occupations and training. The statistics of 'over-age' pupils given elsewhere give serious food for thought in this connection.

37. The Central Advisory Board of Education considered the whole question of educational reconstruction in India in 1935. The Board realized the need of developing training of a more practical type than at present and of making provision for such training, especially for those with little or no literary bent, and of relating it to the scheme of general education. It also recognised the advisability of developing a suitable system of rural education, which would give boys and girls in rural areas a training that would develop in them a capacity for and interest in the work of rural reconstruction. The Board accordingly recommended that in such areas the courses should be adjusted to rural requirements and emphasized the need for providing some form of compulsory manual training which would aim at the development of practical aptitudes. It is gratifying to note that most provinces are now working on these lines.

38. The Madras Report states that considerable headway has been made during the period under review in providing facilities for manual training in elementary and secondary schools as well as in special schools. The number of manual training classes attached to all grades of non-European institutions has risen from 294 to 540, while their enrolment has increased from 56,037 to 84,007 including 2,663 girls. Wood-work spinning and weaving continued to be the most popular subjects of manual training, book-binding and cardboard work, textile printing and rattan and coir work coming next in importance. Horticulture as a subject of manual training has also been gaining ground, especially among institutions under private management.

In Bombay, however, only a few schools have so far introduced a certain amount of practical training into the secondary course. But a hope is expressed

¹ Hartog Report, page 104.

that during the next quinquennium some re-organization, both of the matriculation course and of secondary education as a whole, will be effected which will allow the university to draw upon the most academically fruitful material in secondary schools and also provide opportunities for those pupils, who do not wish to join the university, to be given an education which will not only prepare them for citizenship but also fit them to take up one of a certain number of allied occupations, of a technical nature: in other words that together with a general education they should be given some pre-vocational training.

In Bengal, except in a few schools which owe their existence to the enthusiasm of idealists or to missionary enterprise, no special attempt has been made to arouse in the boys in secondary schools any sense of industrial, commercial or agricultural enterprise. There is little provision in the schools generally for developing manual dexterity, powers of observation or manipulative skill in the pupils. In 1937, however, a scheme for agricultural education in non-government secondary schools was sanctioned, and agriculture is now taught in accordance with the syllabus prescribed by the department. It is reported that on the whole, the schools in which the scheme has been introduced are working fairly well; but there is undoubtedly much room for improvement.

In the United Provinces, manual training is at present entirely confined to wood-working, though in the lower classes work in paper and cardboard is done. Where taken it is compulsory from III to VIII and optional in classes IX and X, where it is not very popular. The Lucknow Inspector reports that the quality of work done in some of the high schools is of a very high order. In large cities, there is a demand for teaching in commerce and classes are full. Agriculture is a subject for the high school examination and is taken in a few schools throughout the province. It is stated to be popular but the lack of a practical test detracts somewhat from its utility. Spinning and weaving are also taught in some schools and at the Jai Narain School, Benares, it has proved a distinct success. Book-binding is taken as a subject for the high school examination in some schools and in others as a part of handicraft teaching. Several schools teach handicraft, either as part of the school course or as extra curricular activities but the majority are still wedded to a purely literary course.

In the Punjab, the high and vernacular schools in rural areas are proving of great value to the villagers. Educational facilities have now been brought more or less to the doors of those who in the past were reluctant to send their children to distant towns in search of post-primary instruction owing to the expense involved and other reasons. To give an agricultural and vocational bias to instruction in these schools, farms and plots, manual training centres and village handicrafts have been introduced. Vegetable growing, fruit farming and floriculture are introduced as hobbies. Soap, ink, chik and basket making, book-binding, rope twisting and *charpoy* weaving are practised in a number of vernacular schools.

There are now 36 manual training centres attached to secondary schools in the Punjab. All these centres specialize in elementary carpentry and the subject is said to be becoming increasingly popular with the pupils.

In Burma, the curricula for English and anglo-vernacular schools were broadened by the introduction of courses in general science, mechanics, commerce and business organization and domestic science. It is the policy of the education department to give grants to schools to develop the teaching of science and other practical subjects. The Vernacular and Vocational Education Reorganization Committee, which submitted its Report to Government in 1936, also recommended a radical reorganization of the secondary school system and it is stated that in the coming years diversified and more practical courses will be provided in the schools in Burma to suit pupils of different aptitudes.

In Bihar also, the range of instruction in high schools continued to be widened year after year by the addition of such subjects as manual training, etc., to the list of optional subjects. In 1932-33, a class in manual training was opened at the Buxer High School, while the agricultural classes, which were attached to the English middle school at Bikram, continued to form part of the high school into which the middle school developed in 1933-34. With the abolition of the school leaving certificate examination in 1934-35, the University added manual training and domestic science to the list of subjects which may be taken for the matriculation examination. But the general tendency to offer only the literary subjects still persists, as there is a disinclination to depart from the familiar secondary school curriculum which is supported by custom and tradition. The writer of the Bihar Report suggests that it would be better to divert to special vocational institutions at the beginning of the high school stage, i.e., after class VII those pupils who have no aptitude for literary studies. In the middle schools, the teaching of industrial or vocational subjects, however, continues to make progress.

In the Central Provinces, manual training centres are attached to 16 Government high schools and one anglo-vernacular middle school and are in charge of trained instructors. The policy of allowing pupils from non-government local schools to avail themselves of these facilities has proved a success. Candidates from schools, which provide instruction in wood-work, have taken this subject for the High School Certificate Examination. It is reported that though their number at present is small, it is likely to grow in the immediate future. Four vernacular middle schools in Nagpur Circle and two in Berar and two in Chattisgarh have agricultural training classes attached to them. It is reported that there is a demand for the teaching of agriculture particularly in vernacular middle schools in rural areas, and a few local bodies have undertaken the introduction of this subject in some of their schools. Instruction in agriculture in classes attached to vernacular middle schools and aided by Government is reported to be fairly satisfactory on the whole. There are also signs of vocational training such as tailoring, weaving and carpentry being encouraged in a few vernacular middle schools.

In Assam, there are only 3 high schools in which regular manual instruction is given. Manual work in the village schools, however, continues to be taught successfully, and it is reported that excellent work can be seen in any educational exhibition.

In the N.-W. F. Province, the demand for the introduction of manual training and handicrafts in secondary schools continues to be keen, and inspectors and teachers are enthusiastic about it; unfortunately lack of funds and experience in handicrafts, etc., stand in the way of rapid development.

On the other hand, in Sind, there is no vocational training course in secondary schools with two exceptions.

In South Orissa both science and some form of manual instruction are compulsory in all secondary schools, but these subjects are not generally provided for in aided secondary schools in North Orissa.

In Coorg, a manual training instructor was appointed as a temporary measure for the Central High School. An agricultural class was also opened in the Government High School at Virajpet, with practical work in paddy-growing on a rented plot of wet land. Gardening, clay-modelling, rope-making, basket making, rattan work and carpentry continued to be taught during the quinquennium.

Delhi reports that some schools have begun to feel the necessity of providing vocational training for boys in secondary schools though no such subjects are prescribed for the High School Examination of the province. Paper cutting, carpentry, etc., have, however, been introduced in some schools as extra subjects, and the results are reported to have been satisfactory.

In anglo-vernacular schools in Ajmer-Merwara there are opportunities for providing a vocational bias, as the Board of High School and Intermediate Education has prescribed commerce, agriculture and manual training as optional subjects for the High School Examination. Most of the high schools in this province provide teaching in commerce, but there is no provision for agricultural instruction in any high school. Vernacular secondary schools have, however, arrangements for a large number of practical occupations, for instance, carpentry, *durrrie* making, weaving, tailoring, soap-making, etc. There is an agricultural class at Bhim which is reported to have made satisfactory progress during the quinquennium. It has been the aim of the educational authorities in Ajmer-Merwara to make the industrial classes attached to vernacular secondary schools self-supporting.

39. Though of course, subjects such as manual training, drawing, and nature study should be developed in all secondary schools and though pupils in these schools should be encouraged to take part in practical pursuits, it is debatable whether the inclusion of vocational subjects, along with literary subjects, in the ordinary secondary schools is the best means of achieving the real object. To be successful, vocational training requires somewhat expensive equipment, and above all, experienced and practical teaching; it seems obvious, therefore, that resources should not be dissipated, but should, as far as possible, be concentrated in institutions designed for the purpose. Moreover, there is danger that a haphazard intermingling of vocational and general study may defeat the very object which it sets out to achieve; pupils may be tempted by the bait of somewhat superficial and desultory vocational training to prolong unnecessarily their literary studies and thereby to drift aimlessly into paths which are unsuitable to them. The Central Advisory Board of

CHAPTER V.

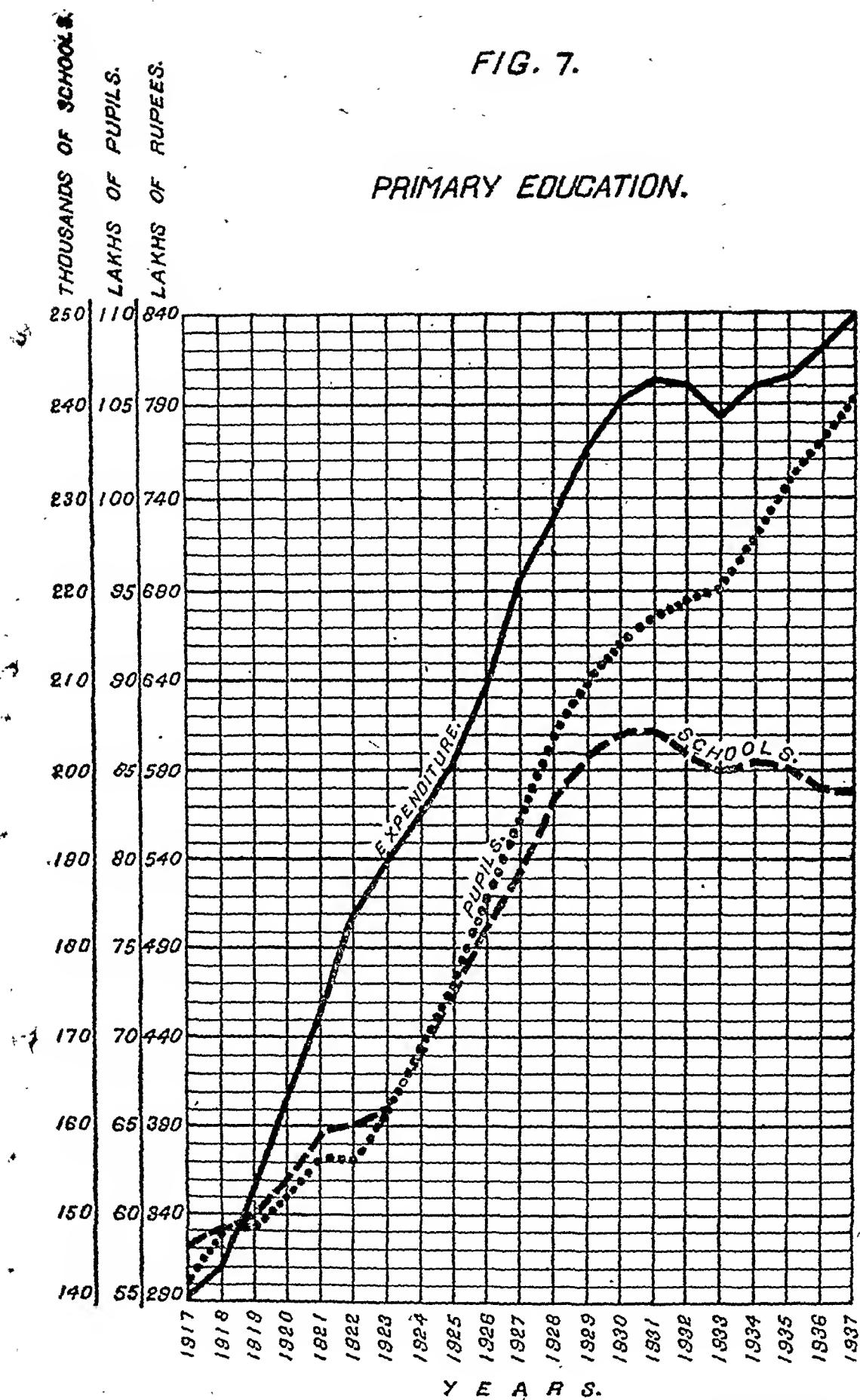
PRIMARY EDUCATION OF BOYS.

(i) Management.

Primary education is mainly the concern of local bodies, who are responsible for its administration and the provision of schools in the areas under their control, although some primary schools are maintained by Government and private bodies also. The following table shows the number of primary schools and the agencies by which they are maintained.

FIG. 7.

PRIMARY EDUCATION.



(To face page 112.)

PRIMARY EDUCATION OF BOYS.

TABLE XLVII.

Primary schools for boys, by management, 1936-37.

Province.	Government.	District Board.	Municipal Board.	Aidcd.	Unaided.	Total.
	Schools.	Schools.	Schools.	Schools.	Schools.	Pupils.
Madras	1,373	63,478	15,441	932,275	989	136,066
Bombay	22	3,289	8,463	617,971	1,063	233,406
Bengal	80	3,895	4,072	221,686	316	39,654
United Provinces	15	1,019	13,295	920,612	829	106,128
Punjab	9	664	4,646	264,933	320	64,246
Burma	40	1,782	16	873	8	736
Bihar	6	395	2,750	166,656	418	26,640
Central Provinces and Berar	3	379	3,659	223,408	469	71,625
Assam	340	10,859	4,153	222,015	49	6,023
North-West Frontier Province	27,657	20	4,284
Sind	2	280	1,058	66,344	156	26,741
Orissa	134	7,403	892	41,060	63	4,369
Coorg	5	1,421	84	6,941	3	426
Delhi	56	2,072	50
Ajmer-Merwara	153	..	7,977	..	6	963
Baluchistan	87	2,412	5	..	133	18
Bangalore	1	62	78	9
Other Administered Areas	13	2,333	3
British India	2,283	107,648	58,963	3,688,904	4,785	724,389
						9,244,081
						8,141
						282,885
						164,894
						9,047,007

The primary schools administered by Government are on the whole more efficient than those managed by local bodies or private agencies. In certain provinces, the majority of the primary schools maintained by Government are practising schools attached to training schools for primary school teachers. Grants are also given to local bodies by Government towards the expenses of primary education, and the local bodies in turn make grants to aided primary schools. The grant-in-aid given to such aided schools is seldom adequate with the result that they are generally ill-staffed and ill-equipped. For example, in Bengal, in some cases the grant is as small as eight annas a month, and it is reported that "the district boards (in Bengal) apparently consider that the better way of ensuring wider literacy in the districts is to distribute the comparatively small amount they set apart for education to a very large number of schools rather than give adequate grants to a limited number of efficient schools".¹ It is unfortunate that the local bodies have not hitherto done as much as they might to improve the efficiency of primary education in the areas under their control, though there are welcome signs here and there of attempts to improve the state of affairs in this respect.

(ii) Statistical difficulties.

2. The difficulty of collecting reliable statistics regarding primary education was fully explained in the Review of 1927-32. This is due mainly to wide variations in the forms in which the different provinces classify schools and school classes. In some provinces, the primary course comprises only four classes. Again, in Madras and Bombay all vernacular education is defined as primary, and the full primary course may therefore cover a period of eight years. In the Punjab and the North-West Frontier Province, on the other hand, all vernacular schools of six classes are classified as secondary schools, while in Bihar vernacular schools containing six classes are called upper primary schools. As a result of this uneven classification of schools, the statistics relating to primary education vary considerably from province to province.

3. This defect was criticised by the Royal Commission on Agriculture in India which suggested in 1928 that the value of the reports on education would be much enhanced if a uniform system of classification of schools could be adopted in all provinces in India. In 1930, the provincial Governments were addressed by the Government of India on this subject and were informed that while the Government of India were in general agreement with the views expressed by the Royal Commission, they realized that there were practical difficulties in giving effect to their proposal. They, however, invited the suggestions of provincial Governments with a view to securing uniformity. The replies received, however, were generally opposed to the imposition of rigid uniformity for the sake of statistical clarity.

4. Although it was realized that the difference between the various provinces in regard to the classification of schools was due to organic differences only to be expected in a country so large as India, another attempt was made towards securing greater measure of uniformity and the matter was referred

¹ Bengal, page 33.

to the Central Advisory Board of Education in 1936. The Board considered very carefully the possibility of evolving a uniform scheme of school classes suitable for adoption in all the provinces but came to the conclusion that at present a uniform classification was not possible or even desirable since any reorganization of school education, a matter which is under consideration in various provinces, would necessarily involve fundamental changes.

(iii) Schools.

5. The two following tables give the total number of recognised primary schools for boys (1) in British India as a whole and (2) by provinces separately. The figures relating to primary departments attached to secondary schools are shown in the statistics of secondary schools and have not been included in these tables.

TABLE XLVIII.

Number of recognised primary schools for boys. 1936-37.

Year.							Primary schools for boys.	Enrolment.
1916-17	124,081	5,188,411
1921-22	137,437	5,543,437
1926-27	162,666	7,290,546
1931-32	168,835	8,155,647
1936-37	164,894	9,047,007
Increase between 1917-22	13,356	355,026
Increase between 1922-27	25,229	1,747,109
Increase between 1927-32	6,169	865,101
Increase (+) or decrease (-) between 1932-37	-3,941	+891,360

TABLE XLIX.

Number of recognised primary schools for boys, by provinces.

Province.						1932.	1937.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
Madras	46,692	41,141	-5,551
Bombay	13,110	11,423	(a)
Bengal	43,724	44,113	+389
United Provinces	19,769	18,507	-1,262
Punjab	5,611	5,811	+200
Burma	4,128	4,349	+221
Bihar	25,124	18,763	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar	4,152	4,334	+182
Assam	5,259	6,002	+743
North-West Frontier Province	597	608	+11
Sind	(a)	2,022	(a)
Orissa	(a)	7,147	(a)
Coorg	100	106	+6
Delhi	166	158	-8
Ajmer-Merwara	219	231	+12
Baluchistan	86	92	+6
Bangalore	51	46	-5
Other Administered Areas	47	41	-6
British India	168,835	164,894	-3,941

(a) In 1932 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar. Hence no comparison has been made.

6. The figures in the above tables show that there has been a decrease of 3,941 primary schools in the whole of British India during the quinquennium under review. The tendency towards a general reduction in the number of schools was noticed in some provinces in the previous quinquennium also. This tendency, which may appear to be depressing at first sight, is revealed, by a closer study of the provincial reports, to be mainly due to the elimination of inefficient and superfluous smaller schools in consequence of the policy of concentration and consolidation.

The largest decrease is in Madras where the number of elementary schools has fallen by 5,551 from 46,692 to 41,141 during the quinquennium under review. It is observed from the Madras Report that "the policy of expansion which was in full swing between 1920 and 1930 countenanced the establishment of a large number of inefficient, uneconomic and superfluous schools which proved worse than useless. This policy of expansion has led to the recent reaction in favour of concentration and elimination, which is partly responsible for the reduction in the number of elementary schools in the quinquennium under report".¹

Another province which shows a large decrease, *viz.*, 1,262, in the number of primary schools is the United Provinces. In this province also, the reduction is "mainly due to the closing of uneconomical schools in accordance with the recommendations of the Weir Report".² This is a step in the right direction.

In Bihar, the number of primary schools for boys fell during the five years by about 1,000. The year 1925-26, in which the provincial Government found it impossible to make further recurring grants, really marks the beginning of the check to the upward rise in the number of schools. While this was not manifest immediately, from the year 1928-29 the number of schools has been on the decrease except for the year 1933-34 when there was a slight increase. It is reported that "the fall in the number of schools, however, has not been serious, as up to the end of the last quinquennium the ground had more or less been consolidated; superfluous unaided schools had dropped out, the pupils joining other schools, and the local bodies found their capacity in respect of the number of schools which they could finance".³

It is gratifying to note that the number of upper primary schools in Bihar has increased from 2,404 to 2,936, or by 532 schools in the quinquennium under review. This is probably due to the conversion of lower primary schools to upper primary schools. This is satisfactory as the upper primary school in Bihar offers a six years' course and is thus a more potent agency for securing permanent literacy.

Reduction in the number of primary schools is also noticeable in certain minor provinces, *viz.*, in Delhi, 8, in Bangalore, 5, and in other smaller areas, 6. In Delhi, the previous quinquennium was a period of rapid expansion and the one under report that of consolidation. Hence the fall in Delhi is "the result of a considered policy pursued by the department in the direction of the elimination of inefficient and uneconomical schools in which the figures of enrolment and attendance as given by the managers were far from reliable".⁴

7. Such a policy of concentration and consolidation should be welcomed as in the words of the Madras Report, "if multiplicity of schools is not in itself a measure of progress, the fall in the number of schools caused by the

¹ Madras, page 86.

² United Provinces, page 67.

³ Bihar, page 77.

⁴ Delhi, page 81.

elimination of inefficient, uneconomic and superfluous schools is obviously a satisfactory feature indicating improvement rather than decline, in so far as the weeding out of ill working and unnecessary schools promotes the growth of efficient and satisfactory schools".¹

8. In other provinces, however, there has been an increase in the number of primary schools. In Bombay, the total increase in the number of such schools was 403. This increase is proportionately less than that recorded during the previous quinquennium. This is attributable to the financial position both of Government and of the local bodies during the earlier part of the quinquennium. It is reported, however, that there has been a steady but slow progress in Bombay in the struggle to bring primary education within the reach of every child.

Bengal also shows a slowing down in the rate of increase in the number of primary schools. While there was an increase of 5,527 primary schools for boys in the previous quinquennium, there has been an increase of 389 only during the quinquennium under review. Some real progress has, however, been made in this province in so far as some inefficient lower primary schools have been replaced by primary schools with a five years' course, or have been amalgamated with neighbouring and better equipped institutions.

In the Punjab, the increase in the number of primary schools is partly due to the reduction in the status of some small and uneconomical lower middle schools and partly to the conversion of some flourishing branch primary schools into full primary schools. In the previous quinquennium there was a decrease of 301 primary schools as a result of the conversion of a number of primary schools into lower middle schools. It appears that in the quinquennium under review a reverse process has set in with the result that many lower middle schools have been reduced to primary schools.

In Burma, local education authorities, whose financial difficulties were alleviated by the restoration of the 10 per cent cut in Government contributions and by the revision of salaries in 1934, utilized the extra funds available to recognise and aid new primary schools. This accounts to a large extent for an increase in the number of primary schools in that province.

It is noteworthy that in the Central Provinces, where the number of primary schools for boys decreased by 37 during the previous quinquennium, there is an increase of 182 in the quinquennium under review.

In Assam, the number of primary schools for boys increased by 743. This does not take into account the ever increasing number of private venture schools which now total about one thousand.

Sind reports that the increase in the number of primary schools for boys in that province cannot be described as satisfactory as it falls short even of the very ordinary normal growth. This slow progress is ascribed to financial stringency in the case both of the Government and of the local bodies. It is,

¹ Madras, page 86.

however, a "matter of satisfaction that the local bodies did not allow some of their schools to be closed down and pupils sent adrift"¹ although "throughout the quinquennium they had to carry on with very materially reduced incomes".¹

In Ajmer-Merwara, no big scheme like the five-year programme of educational expansion which was inaugurated in 1927-28, could be launched during the quinquennium under review owing to acute financial stringency. The important task of consolidating the fresh ground, broken in the previous quinquennium, occupied the close attention of the department. This does not mean that there was no development of any kind, as it is reported that during the quinquennium under review there was an increase of 12 primary schools for boys.

(iv) *Enrolment.*

9. Notwithstanding the fall already noticed in the number of primary schools for boys, there has been an appreciable advance in the enrolment, which has risen during the quinquennium from 8,155,647 to 9,047,007. The following table gives the average enrolment of primary schools for boys in British India :—

TABLE L.

Average enrolment of primary schools for boys.

Year.						Number of primary schools.	Enrolment.	Average enrolment.
1916-17	124,081	5,188,411	41.8
1921-22	137,437	5,543,437	40.3
1926-27	162,666	7,290,546	44.8
1931-32	168,835	8,155,647	48.3
1936-37	164,894	9,047,007	55.0

¹ Sind, page 59.

10. Twenty years ago, the average enrolment of primary schools for boys was 41.8. Since then it has considerably increased and is now 55.0. This is a good sign. The provincial statistics are as follows:—

TABLE LI.

Average enrolment of primary schools for boys, by provinces.

Province.		1932.	1937.
Madras	49	61
Bombay	74	84
Bengal	39	44
United Provinces	57	65
Punjab	69	65
Burma	62	64
Bihar	32	33
Central Provinces and Berar	72	72
Assam	47	49
North-West Frontier Province	51	58
Sind	(a)	62
Orissa	(a)	37
Coorg	83	86
Delhi	103	98
Ajmer-Merwara	54	57
Baluchistan	27	28
Bangalore	102	125
Other Administered Areas	144	165
British India	48	55

(a) In 1932 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

It will be observed from the above table that while the average enrolment of primary schools for boys has fallen in the Punjab from 69 to 65 and in Delhi from 103 to 98 and has remained stationary in the Central Provinces, it has risen in all the other provinces. In both the Punjab and Delhi, the drop in average enrolment is chiefly due to the process of consolidation and the elimination of fictitious enrolments. Among the major provinces the lowest

average enrolment is in Bihar, *viz.*, 33, which may indicate the need for adopting a policy of concentration rather than multiplication. The average enrolment in British India as a whole was, however, 55 during the period under review as against 48 in the previous quinquennium, by no means a negligible improvement. Much, however, still remains to be done, and unless primary schools are better organized and the average enrolment is materially enhanced an economical and effective system can hardly be expected.

It is satisfactory to note that in boys' primary schools in British India, the average attendance to the total number of pupils on rolls is steadily increasing. It was 76·1 in 1922, 77·8 in 1927 and 79·1 in 1932. It has now gone up to 80·2.

11. The figures of enrolment shown in Table L include girls reading in the primary schools for boys and exclude boys reading in girls' schools. The following tables furnish the number of boys in primary schools, whether for girls or for boys.

TABLE LII.

Enrolment of boys in all primary schools.

Year.	Pupils in primary schools for boys.	Boys in primary schools. for boys.	Boys in primary schools. for girls.	Total number of boys in all primary schools.
1931-32	8,155,647	7,324,423	52,634	7,377,257
1936-37	9,047,007	7,846,904	83,309	7,930,213
Increase	891,360	522,481	30,475	552,956

The total number of boys reading in all primary schools has risen by 552,956 from 7,377,257 in 1931-32 to 7,930,213 in 1936-37. These figures do not include boys reading in primary departments of secondary schools. The following table gives an estimate of pupils reading in the primary departments of secondary schools, but it is defective in that girls reading in boys' schools are included and boys reading in girls' schools are excluded.

TABLE LIII.

Pupils in the primary stage.

Year.						In primary schools, for boys.	In secondary schools for boys.	Total.
1921-22	5,543,437	491,119	6,034,556
1926-27	7,290,546	862,016	8,152,564
1931-32	8,155,617	982,693	9,145,255
1936-37	9,617,007	959,183	10,606,190
Increase between 1922-27	1,747,100	370,599	2,118,009
Increase between 1927-32	865,101	127,590	992,691
Increase (+) or decrease (-) between 1932-37	+801,360	-30,425	+860,935

These figures show that while there was an increase of 370,599 pupils in 1922-27 and of 127,590 in 1927-32 in the primary departments of secondary schools, there has been a decrease of 30,425 pupils during the quinquennium under review. This is possibly due to the fact that more children are now attending primary schools instead of the primary departments of secondary schools as well as to the detachment of primary departments from some secondary schools. The total number of pupils reading in the primary schools for boys and in the primary departments of secondary schools for boys has, however, risen by 860,935 from 9,145,255 in 1931-32 to 10,606,190 in 1936-37. This is encouraging.

12. The figures given in the following table give a more correct impression as they show the number of boys at the primary stage in the primary schools as well in the primary departments of secondary schools.

TABLE LIV.

Enrolment of boys in Classes I—V of all recognised primary schools or departments.

Province.						1932.	1937.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
Madras	1,925,356	1,972,928	+47,572
Bombay	797,500	761,138	(a)
Bengal	1,781,050	1,976,140	+195,090
United Provinces	1,101,064	1,145,402	+44,338
Punjab	862,234	782,255	-79,979
Burma	265,438	277,036	+11,598
Bihar	820,231	665,942	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar	344,902	355,499	+10,597
Assam	246,883	286,297	+39,414
North-West Frontier Province	60,886	66,260	+5,374
Sind	(a)	104,959	(a)
Orissa	(a)	227,949	(a)
Coorg	5,857	6,255	+398
Delhi	23,973	24,112	+139
Ajmer-Merwara	11,573	15,776	+4,203
Baluchistan	5,039	5,120	+81
Bengal	7,533	7,963	+430
Other Administered Areas	10,975	10,159	-816
British India	8,270,494	8,691,190	+420,696

(a) In 1932 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar. Hence no comparison has been made.

In the foregoing table, the primary stage has been taken to consist of five classes. Although there has been a big drop of 79,979 boys in the Punjab during the quinquennium under review, the total number of boys at the primary stage in the whole of British India has risen by 420,696 from 8,270,494 in 1932 to 8,691,190 in 1937. As already explained above, the fall in the number

of boys in the Punjab is mainly due to the process of consolidation and elimination of fictitious enrolment in schools. There is therefore no cause for concern.

13. The following table shows the male population of school-going age.

TABLE IV.

Male population of school-going age, by provinces.

Province.	Total male population (in millions).	Male population of school-going		
		1921-22. (000)	1931-32. (000)	1936-37. (000)
Madras	21.9	2,922	3,231	2,622
Bombay	9.3	1,425	1,611	1,115
Bengal	26.0	3,341	3,646	3,125
United Provinces	25.4	3,330	3,562	3,053
Punjab	12.9	1,583	1,603	1,546
Burma	7.5	946	1,049	899
Bihar	16.2	2,317	2,631	1,949
Central Provinces and Berar	7.8	973	1,057	931
Assam	4.5	565	625	544
North-West Frontier Province	1.3	172	184	158
Sind	2.2	(a)	(a)	262
Orissa	3.8	(a)	(a)	161
Coorg	0.1	12	13	11
Delhi	0.4	39	52	44
Ajmer-Merwara	0.3	38	41	36
Baluchistan	0.3	36	38	32
Bangalore	0.1	9	10	8
Other Administered Areas	0.1	18	17	12
British India	140.1	17,786	19,610	16,808

(a) Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

Previous Reviews indicated the male population of school-going age as 15 per cent. and later as 14 per cent. of the total male population. Recent calculations on the basis of the 1931 census have shown that the present figure is approximately 12 per cent. The difference is due to the fact that in the former census the higher mortality among adults had disturbed the balance by giving a greater percentage of children to total population. For purposes of calculation, 12 per cent. of the total population as being the maximum number of children between the ages of 6 to 11 available for education was also accepted by one of the sub-committees of the Central Advisory Board of Education. In Table LV, while the figures for 1921-22 and 1931-32 have been given on the basis of 14 per cent., those for 1936-37 have been calculated on that of 12 per cent.

14. The table below gives the percentage of the male population of school-going age under instruction.

TABLE LVI.

Percentage of male population of school-going age, receiving instruction in Classes I—V, by provinces.

Province.	1921-22.	1926-27.	1931-32.	1936-37.
Madras	42.5	59.0	59.6	75.2
Bombay	45.1	49.2	49.5	68.3
Bengal	37.2	45.1	48.9	63.2
United Provinces	23.1	30.5	30.9	37.5
Punjab	23.9	44.7	47.8	50.6
Burma	20.9	23.0	25.3	30.8
Bihar	26.3	37.3	31.2	34.2
Central Provinces and Berar ..	27.3	30.7	31.7	38.2
Assam	29.5	36.4	38.9	52.6
North-West Frontier Province ..	21.6	28.4	33.1	42.0
Sind	*	*	*	40.1
Orissa	*	*	*	49.5
Total for British India (including Centrally Administered Areas)	31.5	42.1	42.2	51.7

*Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

This percentage is gradually rising. While it was 31.5 in 1921-22, 42.1 in 1926-27 and 42.2 in 1931-32, it has considerably advanced in 1936-37, i.e., to 51.7 per cent. Madras shows the largest percentage of 75.2, while Burma the lowest percentage of 30.8. It is, however, gratifying to note that in all the provinces there has been an appreciable increase in the percentage of the male population of school-going age receiving instruction in classes I-V.

(v) *Expenditure.*

15. As stated in the last Review, "expenditure figures (of primary education) are vitiated by the exclusion of the cost of primary departments of secondary schools, which is debited to secondary education. In Madras and Bombay, the cost of primary education is high in comparison with other provinces by the fact that it includes the cost of the higher vernacular classes. The cost of educating girls in primary schools for boys is debited to boys' education."¹ These remarks still hold good.

16. The following tables show the expenditure on primary schools for boys.

TABLE LVII.

Expenditure on primary schools for boys, by sources.

Year.	Expenditure from				Total expenditure.
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
1921-22	Rs. 2,33,09,615	Rs. 1,14,68,604	Rs. 46,31,758	Rs. 38,48,437 Rs. 4,33,47,444
1926-27	3,04,69,306	1,81,25,265	49,89,370	86,36,355 Rs. 5,02,20,306
1931-32	3,41,12,891	2,26,16,976	48,66,823	64,81,479 Rs. 6,80,98,169
1936-37	3,45,07,711	2,40,48,516	45,55,272	65,86,490 Rs. 6,97,07,991
Increase between 1922-27		70,70,661	66,56,661	3,57,612	17,87,918 Rs. 1,58,72,682
Increase (+) or de- crease (-) between 1927-32	+36,43,585	+41,91,711	-1,02,547	+8,45,004 +88,77,643
Increase (+) or de- crease (-) between 1932-37	+3,94,820	+14,31,542	-3,31,551	+2,03,011 +16,00,622

¹ 10th Q.R., page 137.

TABLE LVIII.

Total expenditure on primary schools for boys, by provinces.

Province.				1932.	1937.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	1,91,22,295	1,93,80,058	+2,57,763
Bombay	1,67,65,007	1,42,87,893	(a)
Bengal	67,23,922	67,47,625	+23,703
United Provinces	89,03,340	88,01,493	-1,01,847
Punjab	37,98,489	40,88,593	+2,90,104
Burma	21,13,837	21,16,248	+2,411
Bihar	51,94,858	44,61,526	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar	30,96,389	32,97,488	+2,01,099
Assam	12,22,269	13,20,453	+98,184
North-West Frontier Province	3,84,304	4,19,912	+35,608
Sind	(a)	24,88,830	(a)
Orissa	(a)	14,89,020	(a)
Coorg..	1,00,068	(b) 1,11,019	+10,951
Delhi	2,73,857	2,92,452	+18,595
Ajmer-Merwara	1,39,380	1,63,385	+24,005
Baluchistan	67,250	1,13,777	+46,527
Bangalore	83,345	94,140	+10,795
Other Administered Areas	1,09,559	1,24,079	+14,520
British India	..			6,80,98,169	6,97,97,991	+16,99,822

(a) In 1932 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar. Hence no comparison has been made.

(b) Excludes Rs. 2,060 spent on carpentry and weaving institutions attached to primary schools.

From the foregoing table it appears that there is an increase of about Rs. 17 lakhs in 1937 in the whole of British India as compared with the figures of expenditure for 1932. With the exception of the United Provinces which shows a decrease of a little over Rs. 1 lakh, all other provinces show an increase in expenditure. The decrease in the expenditure in the United Provinces is mainly attributed to the decrease in the number of schools, to which reference has already been made.

(vi) *Wastage.*

17. Wastage and stagnation still continue although some improvement is discernible. As defined by the Hartog Committee, ' wastage ' means the premature withdrawal of children from school at any stage before the completion of the primary course, while by ' stagnation ' is meant the retention in a lower class of a child for a period of more than one year. Provincial reports attribute wastage to economic, educational and administrative causes. Among them are the premature withdrawal from schools of children, especially those belonging to the labouring and agricultural classes, as soon as they become of economic value to the household, the incomplete structure of a large number of schools, the inadequate supply of teachers which necessitates plural class teaching, the lack of qualified teachers, ineffective teaching and supervision, admission to schools throughout the year, irregular attendance, and faulty administration by local bodies. Unless these adverse influences can be removed, there is little or no prospect of any appreciable improvement. In the whole of British India, 72 per cent. of those who enter primary schools fail to reach Class IV, the earliest stage at which they may be assumed to attain literacy. Provincial Governments are, however, fully alive to the causes of wastage and are making strenuous efforts to improve the situation.

18. Madras reports that " though relatively there was less wastage and stagnation in the period under report, the improvement effected appears inconsiderable when compared with the enormous extent of wastage and stagnation still going on, as revealed by the pyramidal distribution of pupils with large numbers in the lower standards and progressive diminution of strength from class to class as we go higher."¹

In the same strain, it is stated in the Bombay Report that " there has been a very slight improvement "² and that while " Government is maintaining or helping to maintain buildings, equipment, teachers, and supervising and inspecting staff for nearly 10½ lakhs of children, only about 3½ lakhs or 36 per cent. of these children progress any further up the educational ladder than the infants' class. "² The report considers that " the problem that needs to be solved is why so many children leave school before completing either the 4th standard examination or the primary school leaving certificate examination."² It attributes this to the fact that " parents fail to realize the value of primary education to their children. They find that their children are of more value to them as wage earners at an early age than if they continue to go to school. In other words, they do not think that it is worth sacrificing the immediate income to be derived from small children to the doubtful material benefits to be derived from completing either the lower or the higher primary school course."² It is suggested that " until parents can be convinced that it is worth their while and the children's while to send their children to school, no real solution of the wastage problem will be found."²

¹ Madras, page 89.² Bombay, page 109.

In Bengal, "the wastage is appalling."¹, i.e., as large as 85 per cent. and "a great deal of money that is being expended at present on primary education is undoubtedly being wasted and brings no return."¹

The United Provinces Report suggests that "before the question of bringing all boys of primary age to school is considered, the prevention of waste must be tackled. At present, when only 26.7 per cent. of those who enter a primary school become literate, it will be rank extravagance to expand numbers if they are going to gain nothing from it. It must be emphasized that it is not numbers attending which are significant but the percentage which become literate."²

The Punjab Report, however, is optimistic. It is stated that efforts were continued throughout the quinquennium to secure a more uniform distribution of pupils in classes I to IV. In 1931-32 the proportion of boys who reached the IV class was 25 per cent. It has risen to 28 per cent. in 1936-37. In that province, a five-year plan has recently been adopted to raise this percentage to 65. One Inspector of Schools in the Punjab reports that "diminution from class to class is decreasing specially from class I to II and II to III and more desirable proportion is the result."³ A hope is expressed that appreciable results will follow the better methods of teaching that are being persistently enforced.

The figures in Burma also show a promising increase in the percentage of vernacular pupils who complete the primary course, though the amount of wastage is still depressing.

In Bihar, the figures show a more even distribution of pupils over the various classes than is indicated by the figures of the previous quinquennium. It is hoped that as the new syllabus becomes more and more familiar to teachers, the results will be more and more uniform.

In the Central Provinces, orders have been issued that admissions should be made within two months of the annual promotion examination. This has resulted to some extent in reducing wastage and stagnation in the higher classes.

Assam attributes wastage in the first year or two mainly to the difficulty the children experience in learning the compound letters. The provincial Text-book Committee is now making an inquiry into the possibility of omitting most of the compound letters and also of simplifying the spelling. It is hoped that the outcome of this inquiry will be considerable simplification of the primary course, and a consequent diminution of wastage.

In Sind, there is an enormous wastage. It is reported that only 20.8 per cent. pupils pass the fourth standard. This figure includes the schools of urban areas where the people are more advanced, so that the percentage of pupils reaching this stage in rural areas is necessarily much smaller.

¹ Bengal, page 33.

² U.P., pages 69-70.

³ Punjab, page 55.

These figures themselves are sufficiently revealing. While the amount of wastage has decreased between classes I and II and classes III and IV, it has increased between classes II and III and classes IV and V during the quinquennium under review. The problem for solution is not to get children into school but to retain them till they reach the highest class of the primary course. Although something can be done in this direction, if a serious effort is made to influence parents to keep their children at school, the only effective solution is the introduction of a compulsory system of primary education.

The following table is of interest. The figures speak for themselves, and no detailed comparison is necessary.

TABLE LXII.

Enrolment of boys in class IV and its proportion to male population.

Province (with male population in thousands).	Number of pupils in Class IV.		Number per 10,000 of population in	
	1931-32.	1936-37.	1931-32.	1936-37.
Madras (21,846) ..	245,241	277,232	106	127
Bombay (9,292) ..	112,400	113,969	98	123
Bengal (26,042) ..	118,771	150,498	45	58
United Provinces (25,445) ..	119,632	130,632	47	51
Punjab (12,881) ..	97,685	101,616	76	79
Burma (7,481) ..	26,661	27,916	36	37
Bihar (16,245) ..	52,003	105,367	28	65
Central Provinces and Berar (7,762)	59,161	59,187	76	76
Assam (4,537) ..	34,194	38,226	75	84
North-West Frontier Province (1,316) ..	6,748	7,717	51	59
Sind (2,181) ..	(a)	15,101	(a)	69
Orissa (3,837) ..	(a)	33,491	(a)	87
Total for British India (including Centrally Administered Areas) ..	882,653	1,070,360	63	76

(a) In 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

20. Wastage and stagnation are also attributed to the existence of single-teacher schools, i.e., schools which have only one teacher in charge not merely of a large number of classes but also of a large number of pupils in each class. The table below shows the number of such schools, by provinces.

TABLE LXIII.

Statistics of single-teacher primary schools for boys, 1936-37.

Province. (1)	Primary schools for boys.		Single-teachers pri- mary schools for boys.		Percentage of (4) to (2). (6)	Percentage of (5) to (3). (7)
	No. (2)	Enrolment. (3)	No. (4)	Enrolment. (5)		
Madras	41,141	2,494,357	16,977	472,222	41.3	18.9
Bombay	11,423	964,082	4,904	173,359	42.9	18.0
Bengal	44,113	1,945,897	21,635	665,412	49.0	34.2
United Provinces	18,507	1,201,577	5,206	159,612	28.1	13.3
Punjab	5,811	370,687	1,802	62,517	31.0	16.6
Burma	4,349	278,908	2,226	112,871	51.2	40.5
Bihar	18,763	701,225	12,328	328,717	65.7	46.9
Central Provinces and Berar ..	4,334	313,334	893	28,758	20.6	9.2
Assam	6,002	291,834	3,933	147,790	65.5	50.6
North-West Frontier Province ..	608	34,932	394	13,425	64.8	38.4
Sind	2,022	126,627	951	26,833	47.0	21.2
Orissa	7,147	264,405	3,956	106,318	55.3	40.2
Coorg	106	9,385	46	1,568	43.4	16.7
Delhi	158	15,493	63	1,989	39.9	12.8
Ajmer-Merwara	231	13,119	140	4,600	60.6	25.1
Baluchistan	92	2,545	81	1,964	88.0	77.2
Bangalore	46	5,753	2	43	4.3	0.8
Other Administered Areas ..	41	6,787	7	254	17.1	3.7
British India ..	164,894	9,047,007	75,544	2,308,252	45.8	25.5

45.8 per cent. of the primary schools for boys in the whole of British India are single-teacher schools. Baluchistan which is sparsely populated, shows the largest percentage, 88.0, while Bangalore, which is an urban area, has the lowest, 4.3. Among the major provinces, Bihar, Assam and the North-West Frontier Province have over 60 per cent. single-teacher schools, Burma and Orissa over 50 per cent. The majority of these schools are incomplete schools, i.e., schools which do not teach up to Class IV, the lowest stage at which literacy can be attained.

21. Madras reports that incomplete schools with the exception of those that act as feeders to other schools are worse than useless as their contribution to literacy is almost nil, while their existence entails utter waste of public funds. Commendable action has, however, been taken in this province to prevent the sanction of increased grants to single-teacher schools or to incomplete schools other than approved feeder schools.

On the other hand, Bombay observes that although it must be admitted that the existence of single-teacher schools is not a thing to be encouraged, there is nothing inherently unsound in the continued existence of such schools. In its opinion, "the reason why so many people point to the existence of the one-teacher schools as being the cause of the prevailing weakness in the primary school system is that the authorities concerned, viz., the district school boards, are not sufficiently careful to see that the best of their younger trained teachers are put in charge of these schools; and the reason why inferior teachers are so often put in charge of one-teacher schools, is that it is difficult to induce a young and promising teacher to bury himself in an obscure village."¹ It is, however, gratifying to note that the number of single-teacher schools in Bombay is decreasing.

Bengal has the largest number of single-teacher schools, which probably accounts for the fact that it has the worst percentage of wastage among the major provinces. It is reported that the unsatisfactory nature of the teaching provided in these schools is one of the main causes for the failure of the present system of primary education in Bengal.

In the United Provinces, boys attending incomplete schools generally discontinue their schooling after passing class II. The position of single-teacher schools generally is far from satisfactory.

In the Punjab, branch or feeder single-teacher schools were opened to provide the first two years' schooling for very young children in their own villages. But it was found that most of the branches failed to send boys to the parent school after they had completed two years at their own village school. Many such branch schools were consequently closed down. It is reported that the present aim in the Punjab is to have a full primary school or no school at all.

In Burma, more than half of the primary schools are single-teacher schools in which the teacher has to divide his time between three, four or even five classes. Pupils are thus left to their own resources for long periods. It is

¹ Bombay, page 107.

reported that many of these schools have sufficient pupils to justify the employment of a second teacher, but the local bodies cannot afford the extra expenditure.

The rather low percentage of the literacy figures in Bihar is due to a certain extent to the weak, inefficient and unattractive one-teacher schools which fail to retain pupils sufficiently long for their schooling to have any lasting effects.

The Central Provinces Report also states that the general opinion of the inspectorate about single-teacher schools is that they are not successful and absorb funds which could be more usefully employed elsewhere. The standard of instruction is low and literacy is seldom attained. "Some of these schools have little justification for existence at all and are opened at the request of district council members for election purposes."¹

The North-West Frontier Province records an increase in the number of single-teacher schools, which is attributed mainly to the want of funds and to the continuous and persistent demand of the people for more primary schools. As funds become available, it is the intention of the department to improve or abolish the single-teacher primary schools.

Sind observes that however undesirable single-teacher schools be, they are unavoidable in a sparsely populated province like Sind. On the other hand, it is gratifying to note that the Government of Orissa have adopted a general policy that every lower primary school, except a feeder infant school, should have two teachers.

Delhi reports that "in spite of the fact that most of the single-teacher schools are showing fairly satisfactory work, it cannot be denied that such a school is an inefficient educational unit. Except for periodical inspections there is very little check on the work of the junior teacher who is generally found in charge of such institutions. As a rule he lacks initiative and the skill needed to carry on the work of all the four classes."² It is suggested in the Delhi Report that the defect can to some extent be remedied by giving instruction in the training schools in methods of plural class teaching.

22. The only way to save much of the present waste so far as primary education is concerned is to eliminate the single-teacher school wherever possible and to improve the quality and remuneration of the teachers throughout the system.

(vii) Teachers and teaching.

23. Almost all the provinces report appreciable improvement in the method of teaching. The following table gives the position in regard to trained men teachers in primary schools.

¹ C. P., pages 52-53.

² Delhi, page 87.

TABLE LXIV.

Men teachers in primary schools.

Province.	Total No. of men teachers (1937)	Trained (1937)			Per centage of the total trained to total no. of men teachers			Percentage of trained teach- ers pro- portion- ately existing in total No. of men teachers.		
		Primary class		Higher qualifica- tions	Total No.	1932	1937	1932	1937	1932
		Primary class	Higher qualifica- tions	Total No.	1932	1937	1932	1937	1932	1937
Madras	96,710	22,730	45,550	68,250	72.4	72.3	57.7	72.1	61.1	72.1
Bombay	29,116		14,294	14,821	48.5	62.2	46.8	62.1	49.1	62.1
Penjal	85,721	9,075	31,710	51,225	58.1	57.7	52.9	57.5	51.5	57.5
United Provinces	58,557	3,541	26,743	26,818	60.2	57.6	55.4	55.4	53.2	55.4
Punjab	11,780	672	3,634	9,664	52.3	41.6	67.7	56.7	56.7	56.7
Burma	6,163	3,431	741	4,274	55.4	56.3	59.2	52.2	52.2	52.2
Bihar	31,012	2,559	12,531	17,581	42.1	55.7	34.5	51.1	51.1	51.1
Central Provinces and Berar	11,124	1,141	5,510	7,074	55.5	55.4	55.0	55.4	55.4	55.4
Assam	8,117	237	2,021	2,324	31.6	28.2	35.2	25.2	25.2	25.2
North-West Frontier Province	1,010	165	609	740	57.0	55.4	55.2	55.2	55.2	55.2
Sind	4,739	..	2,014	2,046	(4)	43.2	(4)	43.2	43.2	43.2
Orissa	12,072	2,350	3,899	6,213	(4)	51.5	(4)	52.2	52.2	52.2
Cooch	324	84	183	272	74.4	43.9	42.9	42.9	42.9	42.9
Delhi	476	10	371	385	73.9	50.0	62.5	50.0	50.0	50.0
Ajmer-Merwara	420	12	256	314	60.0	74.7	61.7	70.5	70.5	70.5
Baluchistan	114	29	64	113	53.3	50.1	53.9	53.9	53.9	53.9
Bangalore	193	37	99	126	65.2	70.4	45.6	51.3	51.3	51.3
Other Administered Areas	246	45	96	146	39.6	59.3	20.0	59.0	59.0	59.0
British India	336,072	40,670	150,059	191,500	60.3	67.0	50.4	50.4	44.3	44.3

(a) In 1932 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

Between 1932 and 1937 there has been a marked increase in the proportion of trained teachers to the total number of teachers in Madras, the percentage of trained teachers having advanced from 59.4 to 72.3. Coming to details, the number of trained teachers in that province ranged between 80 per cent. and 90 per cent. in eight districts, between 70 per cent. and 80 per cent. in eleven districts and between 60 per cent. and 70 per cent. in four districts. The large increase in the number of trained teachers with higher qualifications, which caused a proportionate reduction in the number of teachers with

lower qualifications, marks a very considerable improvement in the staffing of elementary schools in this province during the quinquennium. The decrease in the number of uncertificated teachers is a further sign of progress.

In Bombay, there has been a very small percentage increase in the number of trained teachers, *viz.*, from 46.8 in 1932 to 49.2 in 1937. Although there is an urgent necessity for accelerating the output of trained teachers, if the urgent need of improving the efficiency of primary schools is to be met, the progress in this direction during the quinquennium can, on the whole, be said to be encouraging.

In Bengal also, the number of trained teachers has been on the increase, and it is stated that a great deal could be done to encourage and stimulate teachers, if adequate arrangements could be made for expert and sympathetic supervision of their work from time to time ; but unfortunately in this province the system of inspection is becoming progressively less effective on account of the reduction in the number of inspecting officers.

The percentage of trained teachers was 66.2 in 1932 and has now increased to 73.6 in the United Provinces. Some improvement in the quality of the teaching is also discernible. One Inspector reports that the teachers have shown appreciable improvement in those districts where the administration was reasonably satisfactory. The United Provinces Report consequently stresses the need for reorganization in the district administration of primary education.

The Punjab Report shows that despite the obvious handicaps from which the village school suffers, earnest efforts have been made to improve the quality of the teaching in primary schools. A number of assistant district inspectors were deputed to Moga in 1935 to receive training in modern methods of teaching. On their return they demonstrated these methods to the teachers in their respective sub-divisions. The Jullundur Inspector reports that there has been considerable improvement in the teaching technique in his schools as a result of the training received by assistant district inspectors and teachers at Moga. The department is also considering plans to reorganize the scheme of training of the junior and senior vernacular teachers.

In Burma, the introduction of a maximum age-limit for teachers in vernacular schools in 1932 has helped to rid the schools of old and inefficient teachers, and the revised scales of salaries sanctioned in 1934, whereby teachers are paid according to the department of the school in which they are working instead of according to their qualifications, have resulted in the employment of better qualified teachers in the primary departments. Consequently, there has been an improvement in the quality of the work in vernacular primary schools. The introduction in recent years of up-to-date text-books has also contributed towards this improvement.

In Bihar, a new syllabus for a one year's course in elementary training schools, necessitated by the introduction of a new primary school curriculum, has been introduced with effect from January 1937, and admissions have been restricted to middle-passed men only. This is replacing the old two years' course for men with upper primary qualifications. It is hoped that the men

taking the new course will be better qualified, when they pass out as trained teachers, to deal with the new syllabus.

In the Central Provinces, there has been a distinct advance in the number of trained teachers during the last ten years. There has been some improvement also in the standard of instruction but the conditions of service generally still leave much to be desired. In the Berar Circle, matriculates were admitted directly to the second year course in the three normal schools, and it is stated that if this system is continued for some years more, the general level of efficiency should be considerably raised.

It is depressing that the percentage of trained teachers has declined in Assam from 31.6 to 28.2 during the quinquennium under review. It is reported that "the fall is partly due to the action of the late Government in closing the training schools for three years—an action about which it is difficult to write politely."¹

The North-West Frontier Province has extended to two years the junior and senior vernacular courses at the training school for men at Peshawar, and it is satisfactory to learn that a better type of teacher is now becoming available.

Sind recognises that a teacher with only a vernacular passed qualification is not likely to be efficient and considers it highly desirable that each teacher should receive at least a year's training. "But the raising of the percentage of trained teachers means proportionate increase in expenditure upon their salaries; for the trained teacher has better scales of pay than the untrained teacher. Therefore, as a measure of economy the department has been restricting the out-put of trained teachers to bring the proportion to the necessary minimum, i.e., 50 per cent. as fixed by the Primary Education Rules."²

The elementary training schools of North Orissa continued to give a one year's course. As this is now held to be inadequate, Government are considering the introduction of a two years' course and the employment of a better type of instructor in these schools in the near future. The course of instruction in the South Orissa schools is reported to be defective in that it ignores the nature of the child, and when the North Orissa schools are ready to work on a two years' course, it will be necessary to draw up a new common syllabus for all the elementary training schools of the province. This matter is receiving attention.

It is satisfactory to note that the percentage of trained teachers has risen in Delhi from 73.9 to 80.9. This rise is attributed partly to the elimination of uneconomical and inefficient aided primary schools in which untrained teachers were generally employed and partly to the fact that the department has now stopped the appointment of untrained teachers by laying down a rule that any such appointments in future will result in the removal of the school from the list of recognised institutions. This is clearly a step in the right direction.

24. In this connexion, the following table, which gives the number of training schools for men and their enrolment in each province, is of interest.

¹ Assam, page 44.

² Sind, page 63.

TABLE LXV.

Training schools for men.

Province.	1931-32.			1936-37.		
	No. of normal and training schools.	Students.	Total No. of men under training.	No. of normal and training schools.	Students.	Total No. of men under training.
Madras	83	10,983	10,981	72	9,940	9,926
Bombay	12	711	711	15	1,014	995
Bengal	91	2,557	2,557	88	2,642	2,626
United Provinces	63	1,622	1,622	52	1,432	1,432
Punjab	20	1,742	1,742	5	463	456
Burma	26	829	685	12	851	684
Bihar	83	1,676	1,676	62	1,379	1,379
Central Provinces and Berar.	10	1,053	1,053	8	809	800
Assam	6	211	211	6	333	332
North-West Frontier Province.	3	163	163	1	132	132
Sind	(a)	(a)	(a)	1	113	113
Orissa	(a)	(a)	(a)	17	640	638
Coorg
Delhi	1	40	40	1	39	39
Ajmer-Merwara	4	82	82	4	60	60
Baluchistan	1	10	10
Bangalore	1	37	37	1	38	38
Other Administered Areas.	1	86	86	1	99	99
British India ..	426	21,823	21,686	346	19,975	19,742

(a) In 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

The number of training schools for men teachers has fallen by 79 and their enrolment by 1,848 during the quinquennium under review. This decrease, which is shared by the various provinces, is much to be deplored in view of the urgent need for an increased supply of trained teachers for primary schools.

Some improvement is, however, noticeable in the organization of training schools. In some provinces, an attempt has been made to select more suitable candidates for training in these institutions and to modernize the methods of instruction. The curriculum has been revised and attention is being paid to the teaching of rural knowledge with a view to enabling the pupil teachers to co-ordinate instruction with rural life and environment.

25. The following table gives the average annual cost of training teachers in provinces.

TABLE LXVI.

Average annual cost per pupil in training schools for men, by provinces.

	Province.						1931-32.	1936-37.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Madras	136 13 2	107 13 3
Bombay	329 9 10	233 8 7
Bengal	180 0 7	179 6 7
United Provinces	278 6 9	246 4 1
Punjab	150 14 6	149 13 8
Burma	297 14 10	89 11 6
Bihar	186 4 9	154 4 10
Central Provinces and Berar	206 2 3	271 10 0
Assam	434 10 7	181 5 1
North-West Frontier Province	254 5 7	251 1 1
Sind	(a)	323 13 2
Orissa	(a)	151 3 8
Coorg		
Delhi
Ajmer-Merwara	126 10 10	235 3 3
Baluchistan	216 7 0	389 10 4
Bangalore	466 3 2	..
Other Administered Areas	323 7 4	180 10 1
British India	234 7 8	199 9 2
							182 4 11	150 9 1

(a) In 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

With the exception of Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, the average annual cost of training teachers has also fallen in all the provinces.

26. It is apparent that financial stringency has had an adverse effect on the training schools. In the words of the last Review, "retrenchment in this direction is an incentive to waste, not to economy"¹ and "if wastage is to be reduced, the percentage of trained teachers should be largely increased."² This is a matter of the first importance and merits the serious consideration of provincial Governments.

(viii) *Compulsory education.*

27. There is no doubt that a universal system of compulsory primary education is the only real way to check wastage, provided that compulsion can be made really effective. There has been an increase in the number of areas under compulsion in the whole of British India, but provincial reports are not encouraging as regards the results of compulsion as it operates at present. The following table illustrates the position in the provinces.

TABLE LXVII.
Areas under compulsion.

Province.	1931-32.		1936-37.		No. of villages in rural areas under compulsion.		
	Urban areas.	Rural areas.	Urban areas.	Rural areas.			
Madras	25	7	27	7	104
Bombay	10	2	9	1	143
Bengal	1	..	1
United Provinces	37	24	36	25	1,224
Punjab	54	2,024	63	2,081	10,450
Bihar	1	3	1	1	1
Central Provinces and Berar	..	24	7	27	8	508	
Sind	(a)	(a)	1	1	613
Orissa	(a)	(a)	1	1	14
Delhi	1	10	1	9	15
Total	..	163	2,977	167	3,034	13,072	

¹ 10th Q. R., page 153.

(a) In 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

The comparative figures given in the foregoing table indicate that compulsion has been introduced far more extensively in the Punjab than in any other province. But the mere increase in the number of areas brought under compulsion cannot be a source of satisfaction, unless the compulsory system leads to a higher percentage of enrolment and attendance and a better flow of promotion from class to class, so that the stage of literacy is reached by a much larger number of scholars than at present. Judged by this standard, the progress of compulsion in the Punjab is said to be slow, halting and uncertain. Various reasons for this have been assigned by the inspectors, viz., injudicious selection of areas, fear of arousing the hostility of parents, delay in the disposal of cases, and the inefficiency of attendance officers.

Next to the Punjab comes the United Provinces. But in this province also the percentage of admissions is much below what it should be and large numbers escape compulsion altogether. It is also reported that in municipal areas where compulsion is in operation, as many as 79 per cent. of the boys who are admitted to the infants class fall out before reaching the stage of literacy. The position of compulsory education in rural areas is worse. In these areas, out of 25,767 boys who started in the infant class in 1933-34 only 2,644 or 10·3 per cent. could get to class III by 1936-37. Compulsion has so far proved a failure, mainly because the local bodies are supremely uninterested in its success, attendance committees do not use their powers to enforce it and magistrates do not treat the cases of default as serious.

Compulsion has been introduced in Madras in 27 urban areas and in 7 rural areas. With a view to enabling the responsible authorities in these areas not only to introduce compulsion on a wider basis for all children of school-age but also to compel parents, once their children had been admitted to school, to keep them there until they had completed the course or had passed the age-limit for compulsion, the provincial Government introduced legislation in 1934 to amend the Elementary Education Act of 1920. An examination of the statistics for the existing compulsory areas indicates that the results of compulsion have varied considerably in the different localities in which it has been operating. The provincial Government are, however, prepared to persevere with the policy of gradually extending compulsion in the Province with adequate provision for making sure that compulsion will be legally enforced.

In Bombay, since the introduction of compulsion, the number of children of compulsory age on the rolls of primary schools in compulsory areas has considerably increased. The average percentage increase in the number of children of compulsory age studying in schools in compulsory areas is 56·6 per cent. But it is reported that compulsion is still not effective and that considerable propaganda is necessary before the public will co-operate willingly with the authorities in its enforcement. It is suggested that for this propaganda to have the desired effect, it is essential to improve the general standard of education and to convince parents of the value of sending their children to school.

In Bengal, only the Chittagong Municipality has adopted a scheme for compulsory education for boys within the whole municipal area, and Government contribute half the cost of the schools. As an experimental measure, the Corporation of Calcutta has also introduced compulsion in one ward of the city without receiving any subsidy from Government.

In Bihar, while compulsion has achieved some success in Ranchi town, the only urban area in which compulsion has been introduced, the experiment in rural areas has failed and the number of rural areas under compulsion has fallen from 3 to 1 during the quinquennium under review. The figure for the year ending 31st March 1937 for boys of compulsory school-going age in Ranchi town was 3,078 of whom 3,034 attended schools.

The Central Provinces Report states that the results of compulsory education have not been satisfactory. Complaints of the weakness and slackness of attendance authorities, owing to the fear of unpopularity, are frequent and in too many cases meetings are few and badly attended.

In Sind also it is reported that although numerically the compulsory scheme has been successful in enrolling more pupils, the benefit to the community at large has not been substantial. "A close study of the working of the Primary Education Act in the compulsory areas once more emphasizes the facts that a trained teacher obtains better results than an untrained one and that an efficient and honest worker attracts and retains boys without much help of law. While some schools in charge of capable and contented headmasters showed full and regular attendance and stagnation and wastage reduced to minimum, schools in charge of inefficient and indifferent teachers had all the vices of a bad school in other areas. Thus the chief thing for the achievement of the object in view is a contented and efficient teacher."¹

In Delhi also, it is stated that the provisions of the Compulsory Primary Education Act by themselves are of little help in making primary education compulsory in the real sense of the word. It is, however, satisfactory to note that the efforts of attendance officers have met with a larger measure of success in improving daily attendance.

In this connexion, the following extracts from the Burma Report are apposite :—"A section of the public would solve the problem of wastage by the immediate introduction of compulsory education, but the application of compulsion at this stage would probably result in increased wastage. Before compulsory education can be introduced with any hope of success, the ground must be prepared for it by a complete reorganization of the primary education system and by the provision of adequate funds. The premature introduction of compulsory education in Indian provinces has produced results which should serve as a warning to Burma."²

28. Another weakness in the primary schools is the very large number of "over-age" children in the various standards. As in the last Review, the figures in the table below are compiled on the basis that pupils over twelve years of age in Class IV, those over the age of eleven in Class III, those over the age of ten in Class II, and those over the age of nine in Class I should be regarded as "over-age". The application of compulsion to children so distributed would mean that large numbers of pupils would cease to come under compulsion after passing through only two standards, as in the provinces where compulsion is in force the upper age limit is usually 11.

¹ Sind, page 76.

² Burma, page 21.

TABLE LXVIII.

'Over-age' pupils (Boys and Girls) in Classes I—IV.

Province.	Class I.			Class II.			Class III.			Class IV.			Classes I—IV.			Percentage of over-age pupils in Classes I—IV to total No. of pupils.	
	Total No. of pupils.	'Over-age' pupils.	1932.	1937.													
Madras ..	1,313,773	100,684	681,255	147,134	129,728	121,691	350,657	114,794	2,681,413	650,297	27,0	21·6	1,032,	1,032,	17·0	10·6	
Dem. of ..	370,507	68,712	203,101	42,427	163,731	42,287	146,691	36,371	916,413	170,797	17·0	10·6			0·1	0·3	
Bengal ..	1,239,817	114,985	493,150	52,321	187,987	65,173	111,063	21,450	2,539,481	327,980	27·0	20·5					
United Provinces ..	590,614	120,117	307,704	91,273	122,015	30,307	118,184	30,101	872,191	162,010	20·8	18·0					
U.P. b ..	40,010	55,075	107,313	42,105	32,865	23,110	40,161	16,163	470,916	151,313	27·5	32·1					
Burma ..	201,734	70,131	81,272	10,047	172,030	115,993	117,990	10,250	705,059	47,773	13·1	6·8					
Rajbari ..	269,127	14,634	103,082	32,156	85,214	30,308	67,287	28,013	111,550	126,301	30·1	30·7					
Central Provinces and Berar	155,070	35,697	73,380	10,010	59,010	5,204	46,124	4,038	322,280	11,642	6·4	4·5					
Assam ..	131,820	6,912	36,669	5,327	10,740	3,227	0,129	0,876	17,400	17,400	24·3	23·1					
North-West Frontier Province	42,414	7,985	13,578	3,411	28,123	4,656	27,791	3,603	129,431	17,303	13·5	13·5					
Sind ..	57,774	6,140	100,302	9,991	65,850	6,362	38,721	4,102	205,338	21,303	*	8·0					
Orissa ..	69,862	1,635	2,211	550	1,033	293	1,711	312	8,360	1,206	23·1	16·1					
Gong ..	15,680	3,036	6,370	1,603	4,905	1,950	1,310	1,005	31,267	7,309	20·2	23·4					
Delhi ..	4,770	2,017	4,270	2,017	3,207	1,680	2,162	1,060	18,780	9,654	18·0	61·0					
Ajmer, Merwara ..	0,647	0,647	1,010	498	651	210	163	160	5,980	1,980	30·0	35·8					
Baluchistan ..	2,576	0,952	752	2,691	2,376	0,92	537	12,274	2,074	21·5	21·0						
Bangalore ..	5,303	1,502	2,453	705	2,280	625	2,146	608	14,110	3,410	25·5	24·4					
Other Administered Areas ..	7,221					
British India ..	5,297,027	714,321	2,382,822	478,070	1,759,075	401,124	1,285,800	318,483	10,725,330	1,012,000	10·0	17·8					

*In 1932 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

29. The following table illustrates the progress of literacy in the provinces.

TABLE LXIX.

Progress of literacy among males.

Province.	No. of boys in Class IV during					No. of boys rendered literate during the quinquennium.	
	1932-33.	1933-34.	1934-35.	1935-36.	1936-37.	1927-32.	1932-37.
Madras	251,301	261,225	271,691	276,366	277,232	1,138,192	1,337,815
Bombay	115,590	118,398	121,455	124,142	113,969	539,290	593,554
Bengal	120,539	123,094	130,914	139,106	150,498	600,849	664,151
United Provinces ..	117,085	120,643	122,109	125,940	130,632	583,739	616,409
Punjab	96,938	99,289	98,947	99,082	101,616	442,427	495,872
Burma	27,245	26,136	27,158	27,557	27,946	120,517	136,042
Bihar	55,746	59,306	132,616	131,759	105,367	259,242	484,694
Central Provinces and Berar.	58,206	58,871	60,445	60,464	59,187	280,937	297,073
Assam	34,205	34,257	34,032	23,466	38,226	153,319	177,186
North-West Frontier Province.	6,812	6,849	7,223	7,210	7,717	20,902	35,811
Sind	(a)	(a)	(a)	(a)	16,101	(a)	15,101
Orissa	(a)	(a)	(a)	(a)	33,491	(a)	33,491
Coorg	953	947	1,097	1,010	1,061	4,793	5,068
Delhi	3,258	2,949	3,134	3,202	3,312	12,011	15,855
Ajmer-Merwara ..	1,664	1,830	1,786	1,827	1,837	6,405	8,944
Baluchistan	645	693	752	328	434	2,536	2,852
Bangalore	1,015	1,061	1,128	1,217	1,213	4,840	5,634
Other Administered Areas.	1,231	1,421	1,552	1,487	1,521	7,031	7,212
British India ..	892,433	916,069	1,015,939	1,037,063	1,070,360	4,186,030	4,932,764

(a) In these years Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

It is encouraging that the number of boys who reach Class IV, the lowest stage at which they can be assumed to attain literacy, is steadily increasing in British India. While the total number of boys who reached Class IV during the previous quinquennium was 4,186,030, it has risen to 4,932,764, i.e., by about $7\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs, during the period under review.

30. The main obstacles in the progress towards general literacy are incomplete schools, single-teacher schools and inefficient schools. Unless these schools are properly organized and compulsion is made more universal and effective, there is little prospect of removing illiteracy in India. It is recognised that a large sum of money is necessary if the necessary improvements are to be effected, and this problem must be resolutely faced sooner or later. In the words of the Bengal Report, "after all, nations manage to find the money they need for war. A war against illiteracy has long been overdue."¹

(ix) *General.*

31. The reports received from all parts of India make it clear that during the quinquennium considerable attention has been devoted to the improvement of the curriculum of primary schools. In Madras, a special committee was appointed in 1936 for drafting syllabuses and courses of study for all the subjects taught in lower and higher elementary schools with particular reference to the requirements of rural schools: the Committee's report has been submitted to Government. In Bombay a tentative revised curriculum for primary schools has been drawn up and introduced in certain selected schools. The main difference between this new curriculum and the old one is that in the new particular stress is laid upon the importance of training a child's eye and hand as a means of developing his general intelligence. Divisional inspectors report that this new curriculum has proved a success. In 1936, the Government of Bengal also appointed a Primary Curriculum Committee with a view to devising a curriculum to provide for an effective grounding in the 3 R's, for physical training and for a reasonable rural bias to be given to the teaching in country schools. The recommendations of the Committee have been approved by the Government. In the Punjab, a revised syllabus for the vernacular final examination has been introduced in which rural science has been made a compulsory subject. A hope is expressed that it will help in popularizing education in rural areas. Measures are also being taken in Burma to reorganize the system of primary schools and their curricula. The most important event of the quinquennium in that province was, perhaps, the publication of the Report of the Vernacular and Vocational Education Reorganization Committee in 1936 in which comprehensive changes are proposed. The Report is now being considered by the provincial Government. A new syllabus has been introduced in primary schools in Bihar. This has brought about a change of considerable importance by extending the lower primary and upper primary courses from three and five years to four and six years respectively. In the Central Provinces, the aims and principles of primary education have been clearly defined and a new primary school syllabus, designed to ensure permanent literacy and to give the pupil a living interest in his environment, has been prepared. In some other provinces also, the curriculum of primary schools has been revised and made more practical and interesting.

Refresher courses for primary teachers are now being held more frequently and systematically than before.

¹ Bengal, page 41.

The teachers and pupils of primary schools are co-operating with the departments of public health and agriculture in the cause of rural uplift. The main object of this movement is to ameliorate the economic, hygienic and moral conditions of the rural population. Posters and pamphlets on the subject are distributed by primary teachers and their pupils, and lectures are arranged.

Although the condition of primary school buildings is still far from satisfactory some progress is noticeable. Madras reports the construction of 3,497 new buildings for elementary schools for boys during the quinquennium under review and the N. W. F. Province 27 new buildings by the district boards. In Bombay, 61 new buildings were completed, 36 existing buildings extended, and at the end of the year 1936-37, 35 buildings were under construction, while in Sind, 32 new buildings were constructed by the district local boards, 22 existing buildings extended, and 6 were under construction during 1936-37. New buildings have been constructed in some other provinces also.

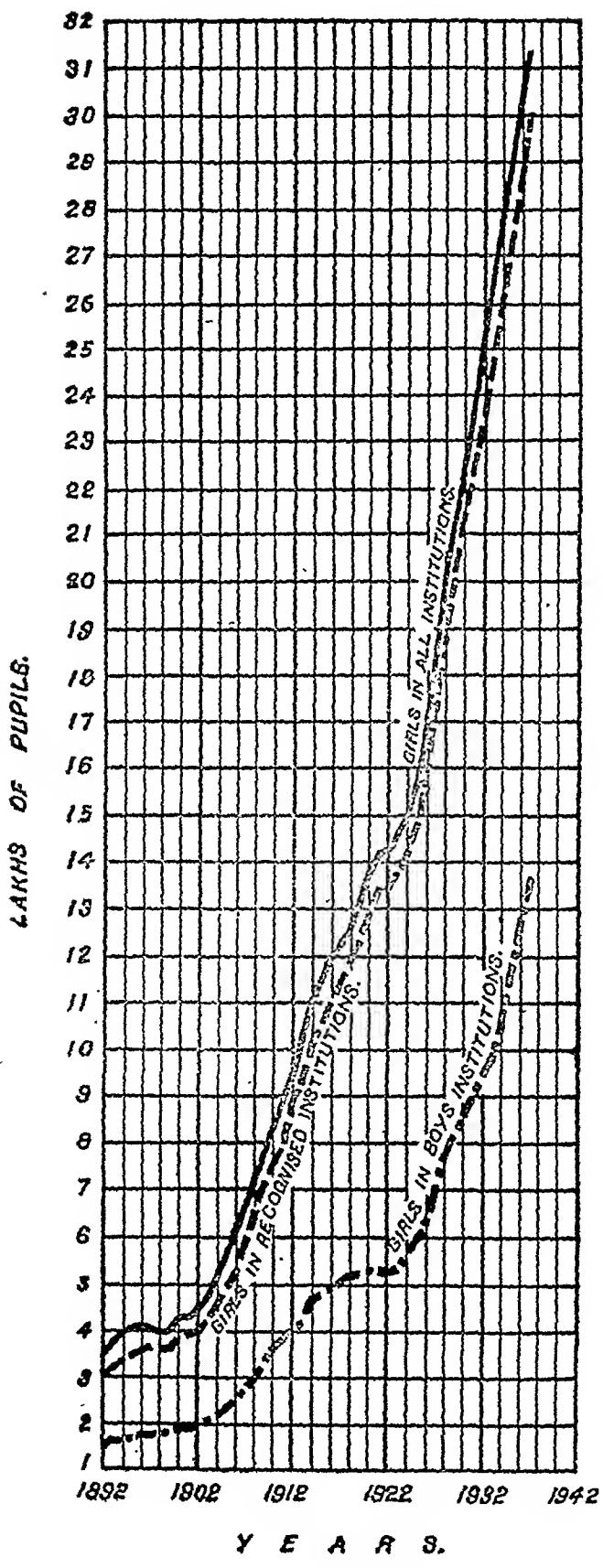
The following extract from the Punjab Report gives a message of hope for the future :—

“ Our schools to-day are full of life and activity and the average boy is happier and healthier, has a larger number of wholesome occupations and pastimes for leisure hours than a boy ten years ago. Modern teaching methods are rendering the process of instruction brighter and more attractive. Useful handicrafts and hobbies tend not only to impress upon pupils the practical aspect of literary studies, but help to remove to some extent the odium and monotony of book-learning. Physical training and games occupy a prominent place in the daily programme of schools. Minor games are played during school hours while major games are compulsory for all boys in most schools. Gardening and floriculture are beautifying the environments of schools and developing the aesthetic taste of the pupils. Music, both vocal and instrumental, affords healthier recreation. Co-operative and Red Cross Societies are receiving encouragement. Rural uplift work is being taken up by most village schools with zeal and earnestness, and intensive work in this direction is carried on in selected areas or villages.”¹

¹ Punjab, page 16.

FIG. 8.

FEMALE EDUCATION.



(To face page 148.)

public life on this subject and they made it clear that much of the money now spent on boys' and men's education will be wasted unless the education of women is brought up to the same level as that of men.”¹

5. The United Provinces Report also refers to the impetus given to girls' education which “gathered incrementum during the quinquennium under report. In fact girls' education has now gained the first place for consideration in all schemes for expansion. Were it not for this added interest, the progress could not have been possible during a period of such stringent financial difficulty.”²

6. In the Burma Report, it is stated that the surprisingly large increases in the number of girl pupils in the last two years are indicative of a growing faith in the value of female education.

7. The Bengal Report tells a similar story. “It would appear that, both amongst the Hindus and the Muslims, the necessity of educating the girls has now been fully realized, though the advance in the case of village girls' education has not been proportionate to the advance in English education amongst the town girls. The progress made by the Muslim girls, especially in the higher stages, is most heartening. There was an increase of 462.5 per cent. in the number of Muslim girls in colleges, of 270.6 per cent. in the high stage and of 172.9 per cent. in the middle stage. The Hindu girls do not show as great a *pro rata* progress as the Muslim girls; the percentage of increase in their case was 111.6 per cent. in the colleges; 111.4 per cent. in the high stage and 84.9 per cent. in the middle stage; in the primary stage, however, the Hindu girls show an increase of 30.7 per cent., 0.1 per cent. greater than in the case of Muslim girls”³. But “the contribution of funds towards the education of girls from public sources has not been keeping pace with the growth in the expenditure on women's education.”⁴

8. The rapid increase in the enrolment of girls also testifies to the growing interest in their education. The following table gives the comparative figures of the enrolment of boys and girls reading in all types of institutions.

TABLE LXX.
Number of pupils according to sex in all institutions.

—	1922.	1927.	1932.	1937.	Percentage of increase between 1932 and 1937.
Males	6,962,928	9,315,144	10,273,888	11,007,683	..
Increase	+2,352,216	+958,744	+733,795	+ 7.1
Females	1,424,422	1,842,352	2,492,649	3,138,357	..
Increase	+417,930	+650,297	+645,708	+25.9

¹ Bombay, page 181.

² United Provinces, page 84.

³ Bengal, page 90.

⁴ Bengal, page 92.

There has been an appreciable increase in the enrolment of girls in all the provinces except Baluchistan, which records a decrease of 814.

The largest increase is in Madras. This province has long been a pioneer in girls' education, consequently an increase of 178,953 girls under instruction is gratifying but not surprising.

Next comes Bengal with an increase of 173,677 girls on rolls. While appreciating this increase, the Bengal report sounds a note of warning. It observes that "there has been an increasing demand for girls' education; but unfortunately it does not appear as if the special needs of girls have been carefully considered. The history of men's education in the province should be a warning, lest women's education also flounder in the same morass. The symptoms are ominous and great vigilance is undoubtedly needed."¹

Baluchistan is the only province where the progress of girls' education has received a set-back. In fact their education was affected even more than that of boys by the disastrous earthquake of 1935. The schools in Quetta were destroyed, and efforts in the way of reconstruction were first directed to making provision for the boys. Temporary buildings have only recently been erected for the girls' schools, and most of them are reported to be unsatisfactory.

9. Girls are distributed in the various types of institutions as shown in the following table.

TABLE LXXII.

Enrolment of girls by institutions.

Year.	In Arts Colleges.	In High Schools.	In Middle Schools.	In Primary Schools.	In special institutions.	In unrecognised institutions.	Total enrolment.
1921-22	938	25,130	85,079	1,195,892	11,184	77,580	1,395,803
1926-27	1,624	39,853	123,892	1,545,963	14,729	90,745	1,816,811
1931-32	2,966	75,470	170,997	2,073,141	18,981	123,120	2,464,641
1936-37	6,039	114,481	216,965	2,607,086	23,027	138,833	3,107,654
Increase between 1922-27.	696	14,728	38,813	350,071	3,545	13,165	421,008
Increase between 1927-32.	1,342	35,621	47,105	527,178	4,252	32,375	647,830
Increase between 1932-37.	3,073	39,002	45,968	533,945	4,046	15,713	643,013

N. B.—This table excludes statistics for Anglo-Indian and European institutions.

¹Bengal, pages 100-101.

The figures are revealing in themselves and bear testimony to the rapid progress of girls' education in India in all stages.

10. The following table shows numerically the types of institutions in which girls are receiving education.

TABLE LXXIII.
Recognised institutions for girls.

Year.	Arts Colleges.	Birh Schools.	Middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	Special institutions.	Total.
1921-22	12	120	518	22,579	234	23,617
1926-27	15	143	656	26,621	316	27,736
1931-32	20	218	787	32,564	389	33,953
1936-37	31	297	978	32,273	404	33,689
Increase between 1922-27	6	23	108	4,042	58	4,239
Increase between 1927-32	2	73	131	5,913	61	6,213
Increase between 1932-37	11	76	191	-291	24	20

N. B.—This table excludes statistics for Anglo-Indian and European institutions.

There has been an increase in the number of all types of institutions for girls during the period under review, except in the case of primary schools which show a decline of 291. This fall, being attributable largely to the policy of consolidation and the weeding out of inefficient and superfluous schools, need not detract from the generally satisfactory character of the picture. The Madras Report observes that "the decrease in the number of schools shows improvement inasmuch as the reduction has been caused by the elimination of inefficient, uneconomic and superfluous schools."¹ The Bengal Report also ascribes this to "the deliberate attempt to weed out inefficient schools."² In the Bihar Report it is stated that "the fall in the number of schools during the five years should not only occasion no anxiety but, viewed in the light of the increasing number of girls in mixed schools, it is actually a welcome sign of an undoubtedly improvement in the efficiency of the existing schools."³

11. The expenditure on institutions for girls and boys is shown in the tables below.

¹Madras, page 98.

²Bengal, page 89.

³Bihar, page 114.

TABLE LXXIV.

Expenditure on institutions for girls, by sources.

Year.	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total expenditure.
1921-22	Rs. 63,51,849	Rs. 29,81,277	Rs. 8,97,729	Rs. 29,02,704	Rs. 1,31,33,559
1926-27	81,88,066	45,06,817	14,18,784	39,15,183	1,80,25,850
1931-32	1,09,31,402	57,71,992	22,24,020	50,12,597	2,39,40,011
1936-37	1,19,54,245	63,81,889	34,68,923	51,06,925	2,69,11,982
Increase between 1922-27.	18,36,217	15,25,540	5,18,055	10,12,479	48,92,291
Increase between 1927-32.	27,43,336	12,63,175	8,08,236	10,97,414	59,14,161
Increase between 1932-37.	10,22,843	6,09,897	12,44,903	94,328	29,71,971

N.B.—This table excludes expenditure on Anglo-Indian and European institutions.

TABLE LXXV.

Expenditure on institutions for boys and girls.

Province.	Expenditure on institutions for males.			Expenditure on institutions for females.		
	1932.	1937.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).	1932.	1937.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
				Rs.	Rs.	
Madras	Rs. 3,54,23,350	Rs. 3,51,83,209	-2,40,051	Rs. 74,19,875	Rs. 73,03,845	--29,030
Bombay	2,85,45,651	2,60,20,410	(a)	58,29,207	56,21,229	(a)
Bengal	2,90,26,148	3,19,25,400	+22,99,252	36,54,487	41,09,817	+4,55,360
United Provinces	2,23,32,981	2,33,97,536	+10,64,555	27,55,467	31,26,447	+6,70,980
Punjab	2,23,53,551	2,27,14,481	+3,60,933	28,93,903	35,24,700	+6,26,103
Burma	1,12,94,638	1,00,32,927	-12,61,711	20,21,872	17,55,327	-2,66,545
Bihar	1,23,91,319	1,14,83,000	(a)	9,21,017	9,06,471	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar.	73,51,830	89,01,321	+6,49,491	8,39,454	9,79,519	+1,40,095
Assam	33,84,687	37,92,880	+4,08,193	3,77,308	4,77,121	+99,816
North-West Frontier Province.	17,85,539	20,71,762	+2,86,223	2,45,262	3,44,731	+99,472
Sind	(a)	44,14,427	(a)	(a)	9,64,860	(a)
Orissa	(a)	30,64,713	(a)	(a)	2,65,989	(a)
Coorg	1,61,337	1,83,033	+21,716	28,963	32,794	+3,831
Delhi	13,44,921	15,10,368	+1,65,447	3,48,136	7,20,523	+1,81,387
Ajmer-Merwara	5,49,619	6,61,750	+1,12,101	1,67,697	1,70,461	+2,767
Baluchistan	2,94,249	2,66,579	--27,370	66,825	18,723	-48,102
Bangalore	4,09,659	4,46,051	+37,392	2,33,022	2,56,761	+23,739
Other Administered Areas	8,82,676	8,72,774	-9,902	3,13,783	2,38,499	-75,284

(a) In 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar, while in 1936-37 they were constituted into separate provinces. Hence no comparison has been made.

There is a steady increase in the expenditure on girls' education. It was Rs. 1,31,33,559 in 1921-22, Rs. 1,80,25,850 in 1926-27, and Rs. 2,39,40,011 in 1931-32. It has now risen to Rs. 2,69,11,982. It is not possible to state the exact amount spent on the education of girls, as a large number of girls are reading in boys' schools and expenditure on their education is debited to boys' schools. In spite of the increasing attention now being paid to girls' education,

as revealed by these figures, the tendency to allot a larger proportion of the additional funds that become available for the education of boys than that of girls remains very marked. For example, in Bengal while there was an increase of Rs. 22,99,252 in expenditure on boys' education, there was an increase of Rs. 4,55,360 only in that of girls' education. Again, in the province of Ajmer-Merwara, there was an increased expenditure of Rs. 2,767 only on girls' institutions as against Rs. 1,12,101 on boys' institutions. The Punjab and Delhi are the only provinces which spent a larger proportion of their additional funds on girls' education. In the former province, the additional expenditure on the education of girls was Rs. 6,26,103 as against Rs. 3,60,933 on that of boys. In Delhi, the corresponding figures were Rs. 1,81,387 and Rs. 1,65,447. Except in these two provinces, little effort seems to have been made to rectify the present disproportion in the expenditure on boys' and girls' education.

12. The following table indicates that owing to financial stringency the majority of the provincial Governments have not been able to maintain during the quinquennium the increase in the measure of financial support which had been given previously.

TABLE LXXVI.

Government contribution to girls' education, by provinces.

Province.	1927.	1932.	1937.	Increase between 1927-32.	Increase between 1932-37.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	30,88,857	44,71,091	47,62,654	13,82,234	2,91,563
Bombay	25,71,128	25,63,112	22,73,468	-8,016	(a)
Bengal	18,21,017	18,09,328	17,66,919	-11,689	-42,409
United Provinces	15,48,779	17,33,868	22,90,890	1,85,089	5,57,022
Punjab	11,91,000	17,67,122	19,91,008	5,75,522	2,23,886
Burma	6,58,289	7,98,601	6,46,482	1,40,302	-1,52,119
Bihar	4,23,525	4,25,194	5,97,662	1,660	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar.	6,38,348	6,31,457	6,51,227	-6,891	19,770
Assam	2,05,428	2,63,643	3,13,308	58,215	49,665
North-West Frontier Province.	58,087	1,51,767	2,52,226	93,680	1,00,459
Sind	(a)	(a)	3,91,754	(a)	(a)
Orissa	(a)	(a)	1,82,039	(a)	(a)
Coorg	22,123	25,491	29,711	3,308	4,220
Delhi	2,07,237	3,67,308	3,90,502	1,60,071	23,194
Ajmer-Merwara	23,353	55,638	57,278	32,185	1,740
Baluchistan	17,693	18,000	13,694	397	-4,306
Bangalore	1,43,999	1,88,647	1,47,004	42,648	-39,643
Other Administered Areas.	30,689	86,846	1,62,493	56,157	75,047
British India ..	1,26,50,072	1,53,55,013	1,69,20,319	+27,04,941	+15,65,306

(a) In 1926-27 and 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar, while in 1936-37 they were constituted into separate provinces. Hence no comparison has been made.

The general conclusion to be drawn from these statistics is that unless more funds are made available, the standard of the education of women cannot be brought to the level of that of men. It is not possible to divert any portion

of funds available for the education of boys to that of girls, nor is it possible to restrict the expansion of boys' education and to make available all the additional funds for girls' education. But until the relative positions are more even, all further schemes for expanding boys' education should proceed *pari passu* with similar schemes for increase in girls' education, and girls' education should have a prior claim on public funds where provision for both cannot be found. The Hartog Committee were also of opinion that "in the interests of the advance of Indian education as a whole, priority should now be given to the claims of girls' education in every scheme of expansion."¹

13. But for the proper development of girls' education it is essential that in any scheme of expansion, a well-thought out plan should be followed. The indiscriminate and unplanned expansion which has characterized boys' education, should not be repeated. It is a real cause for concern to note that considered opinion is that sufficient attention is not being generally paid to this matter. For example, the Bengal Report states that "there are reasons to be disquieted at the haphazard manner in which women's education is developing. Hasty ill-advised schemes are sometimes being hurried forward; women's schools that are being set up are not only replicas of the ordinary boys' schools, but in many cases they are even more inefficient."²

(ii) Co-education.

14. Almost all the provinces report an increasing measure of progress in co-education. The following table shows the percentage of girls reading in boys' schools.

TABLE LXXVII.

Percentage of girls' in boys, institutions to the total number of girls under instruction.

Province.	1927.	1932.	1937.
Madras	55.5	51.1	59.8
Bombay	33.9	36.2	39.7
Bengal	14.4	17.5	24.7
United Provinces	33.3	35.8	38.1
Punjab	8.1	11.2	10.7
Burma	78.5	81.0	82.4
Bihar	39.6	42.7	42.7
Central Provinces and Berar	35.7	38.5	42.2
Assam	52.4	50.3	52.9
North-West Frontier Province	8.6	5.9	9.4
Sind	(a)	(a)	30.8
Orissa	(a)	(a)	72.0
Coorg	68.7	69.0	71.5
Delhi	0.6	2.9
Ajmer-Merwara	9.0	17.2	14.6
Baluchistan	21.5	20.7	..
Bangalore	12.3	9.4	12.2
Other Administered Areas	5.3	3.3	5.5
British India	38.5	38.4	43.4

(a) In 1927 and 1932 Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

¹Hartog Report, page 347.

²Bengal, page 91.

The figures for Madras, Burma, Assam, Orissa and Coorg show that the number of girls attending boys' schools far exceeds the number in schools for girls.

In Bombay also, there is a very large number of girls attending boys' primary schools. The majority of these, however, are found to be studying in the infants or the first four standards of a primary school where the common objections to co-education do not arise. But in the secondary stage, there is still a considerable difference of opinion about the advisability of admitting girls into boys' schools.

In Bengal, in spite of the University's disapproval of co-education in higher secondary schools, the number of girls in boys' secondary schools is increasing.

In the United Provinces, the large increase in enrolment at the primary stage is due to the encouragement given by inspecting officers and others, and to the removal from the Educational Code of the rule which had hitherto restricted girls beyond a certain age from reading in boys' schools.

In the Punjab, the figures for co-education show that there is an increase both in the number of boys reading in girls' schools and in the number of girls reading in boys' schools. The increase in the number of girls reading in primary schools for boys may perhaps be taken as an indication that there is some slackening in the rigidity of the social system, which rendered co-education difficult even at the primary stage in that province.

The Central Provinces Report observes that in 1935 girls were admitted on equal terms with boys into Anglo-vernacular schools, and it is reported that in attainment they are in no way inferior to boys. Any prejudice that existed against the admission of girls into Anglo- vernacular schools is fast disappearing.

15. Co-education is an economic way of making education possible for a large number of girls in areas where they have no schools of their own. But if the educational advantages, which its advocates claim for the system, are to be obtained, it is essential that the staffs in all co-educational institutions should contain a reasonable proportion of women. While something has been done in Madras and the Punjab in this direction by engaging married couples in the same schools, no serious efforts appear to have been made in other provinces. Bombay reports that very few of such schools employ women teachers and that most of the schools, in which both boys and girls are to be found, are co-educational only in a restricted sense. The United Provinces Report also states that at present there are only a few women engaged in those boys' schools to which girls are admitted and suggests that the problem of securing women teachers for these schools is one which needs immediate attention. Bengal also considers that there are definite advantages in having boys and girls in the same school provided there is at least one woman teacher on the staff.

16. The Punjab Report is in favour of encouraging co-education at the primary stage because "the province cannot afford separate schools for boys

and girls in the majority of villages. Hence, in many cases, the alternative is not between co-education and a separate girls' school, but between co-education and no education at all for girls. It is obvious, however, that the fact that a handful of girls read in a boys' school does not make that school a co-educational one. A school is not co-educational in the real sense of the word unless there is a mixed staff and a fair proportion between girls and boys. At the lower primary stage, the ideal is almost certainly a mixed school in charge of women teachers, since women, if well qualified and trained, are certainly better teachers of little boys than men are."¹ With this end in view, the Punjab is training the wives of teachers at Lyallpur and Jullundur in two batches of 20 as a first step towards creating a supply of women teachers for co-educational schools.

17. The Government of Bihar also have reaffirmed their policy of co-education at the lower primary stage as the best solution of the question of the early education of girls. They have also introduced an age limit for the admission of boys to primary schools and it is contemplated that no boy above the age of 10 should ordinarily be found in a lower primary school. They have further decided that in order to encourage co-education at the primary stage, local bodies might grant capitation allowances, as far as their funds permit, to the teachers of boys' schools for teaching girls (who pay no fee) in classes above the infant class. Several local bodies are paying such allowances, but one inspector of schools remarks that "the growth of co-education does not require the artificial aid of the capitation allowance, since girls' education is getting genuinely popular due to the increasing demand for educated brides by young men who now have some voice in the settlement of their marriages."²

18. The Women's Education Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education, which examined in 1936 the question of girls' primary education in India, also considered that co-education at the primary stage should be the ultimate aim in all small rural areas but where the numbers of children were large, separate schools were desirable. They emphasized the importance of appointing women teachers in mixed schools and recommended that in mixed schools or boys' schools where women teachers were appointed, at least two should be posted to the same school.

(iii) Primary Education.

19. Wastage among girls is even greater in primary education than among boys. Whereas out of every 100 boys, 27.7 reach class IV, where literacy may be expected, only 14.3 per cent. of girls who enter schools get to class IV in the whole of British India. The provincial figures are of interest.

¹ Punjab, page 97.

² Bihar, page 121.

TABLE LXXIX.
Wastage among girls in Primary Classes.

Province.	Number of girls in				Proportion of girls in.	
	Class I 1933-34.	Class II 1934-35.	Class III 1935-36.	Class IV 1936-37.	Class I 1933-34.	Class IV 1936-37.
Madras	432,265	156,970	110,355	79,425	100	18·4
Bombay (including Sind)	125,760	55,826	47,291	37,054	100	29·5
Bengal	448,673	110,394	61,607	17,765	100	4·0
United Provinces ..	112,165	35,994	21,891	13,411	100	12·0
Punjab	87,754	26,773	21,123	16,868	100	19·2
Burma	130,263	32,566	21,326	12,514	100	9·6
Bihar (including Orissa)	84,626	33,761	23,351	17,775	100	21·0
Central Provinces and Berar.	36,781	14,765	11,113	8,100	100	22·0
Assam	28,966	12,566	10,242	7,898	100	27·3
North-West Frontier Province.	8,599	2,044	1,723	1,412	100	16·4
Coorg	921	611	574	433	100	47·0
Delhi	5,091	1,418	1,267	1,034	100	20·3
Ajmer-Merwara ..	2,170	460	469	325	100	15·0
Baluchistan	1,094	292	28	32	100	2·9
Bangalore	2,194	1,289	882	729	100	33·2
Other Administered Areas.	2,566	722	676	625	100	24·4
British India ..	1,508,453	486,509	334,639	215,400	100	14·3

20. Various explanations are given of this deplorable state of affairs. The Bombay Report ascribes it to the fact that "parents feel that there is less need for their girls to be educated than their boys and also because the girls are more useful in their homes than boys are."¹ The writer of the Sind Report attributes it, among other reasons, "to purdah system on the one hand and inefficiency of girls' schools in general on the other."²

The Punjab Report states that "stagnation and wastage are almost certainly chiefly caused by the combined effects of cramped and gloomy accommodation, and unsuitable teachers, while contributory causes in the case of the former are that many children are not properly fed before they come to school and frequently do not have nearly enough sleep at the proper time. In some cases

¹ Bombay, page 176.

² Sind, page 126.

this must be due to poverty. In many others, however, it is due to lack of thoughtful provision for the needs of children by their mothers."¹

The Assam Report observes that "of course such wastage is deplorable, but when one considers that most of the women teachers have only been educated to the primary stage themselves and that the large majority are untrained, the results are not as bad as might be expected."²

Delhi attributes wastage partly to poor attendance, but mostly to uninteresting methods of teaching in the Kindergarten classes, where children are dealt with in masses and individual attention is not paid to them. The writer of the Delhi Report suggests that at present the only remedy lies in improving the methods of teaching the Kindergarten and lower primary classes.

Inefficient schools, poor attendance and uninteresting methods of teaching are no doubt the main causes of wastage. But much of the waste is due to incomplete schools which break up before class IV, the lowest stage at which literacy may be expected. The same is true of a large number of single-teacher schools. As shown in the table below, there are still over twenty thousand single-teacher primary schools for girls with an enrolment of over 6 lakhs pupils. Of these over 13 thousand schools with over 4 lakhs pupils are in Bengal. This accounts for the low percentage (*i.e.*, 4·0) of the children who reach class IV in that province.

TABLE LXXX.

Single-teacher primary schools for girls, 1936-37.

Province.	No. of single-teacher primary schools for girls.	Enrolment.
Madras	1,252	41,094
Bombay	306	12,602
Bengal	13,663	406,178
United Provinces	957	29,227
Punjab	856	27,624
Burma	390	19,122
Bihar	1,724	38,561
Central Provinces and Berar	52	1,869
Assam	570	19,671
North-West Frontier Province	31	958
Sind	153	4,652
Orissa	230	5,497
Coorg	2	93
Delhi	4	170
Ajmer-Merwara	13	418
Baluchistan
Bangalore
Other Administered Areas
British India	20,203	607,826

¹ Punjab, page 99.

² Assam, page 52.

22. The conditions of primary schools for girls vary considerably from province to province: in some there are encouraging signs of improvement, in others little in the way of progress can be detected.

Madras reports an appreciable advance in the staffing of elementary schools for girls with the increased employment of teachers with higher qualifications. The number of secondary grade trained teachers rose from 737 to 1,140 and that of higher elementary grade trained teachers from 6,107 to 7,995. There was also a marked improvement in the accommodation of elementary schools during the quinquennium. Nine new buildings were constructed by municipalities, 15 by local boards, 31 by mission and 147 by non-mission agencies. Improvement was also noticeable in the equipment of schools managed by municipalities and missions, though little progress is reported in this respect in the schools under district board management.

In the Punjab also better conditions can be recorded in many schools. With the increase in the inspectorate, assistant inspectresses have been able to give more attention to the condition of school buildings with the result that in some cases they have been able to persuade local bodies to shift their schools into better buildings and in others to persuade individuals to give land and erect simple buildings for district board schools. But very many municipal, district board and aided schools are still housed in most unsatisfactory buildings. In many primary schools, where some or all of the teachers are trained, the standard of teaching has been appreciably raised. In the better schools handwork receives more attention than formerly. But many primary schools are still partially or wholly staffed by untrained teachers.

In Delhi there has been marked progress in the standard of work in all the girls' schools, which is ascribed to the larger number of trained women teachers now employed.

In the United Provinces, the condition of primary schools has remained more or less the same. The need here as elsewhere is for better qualified teachers and more suitable premises. The present policy in the province is not to open more primary schools in rural areas where girls' education is almost entirely confined to the primary stage but to develop existing schools, particularly as the necessity for more schools has been relieved by the spread of co-education. In urban areas, where co-education has been adopted only at the university stage, more primary schools have been opened. A large majority of these new schools are in compulsory areas. The advance, however, in primary education for girls during the quinquennium is said to have been inconsiderable. The general trend of expansion has been more in the higher stages of education, and whatever funds were available were concentrated on the improvement of middle schools and high schools, which have shown an appreciable improvement in all directions. Material conditions are also reported to be deplorable. The average village school-house is not only overcrowded but insanitary. Attempts are, however, being made to remedy this state of affairs, and a sum of Rs. 2,00,000 was given to over forty district boards for the building of new village school houses or for the extension of old ones.

The Bengal Report depicts the present state of girls' primary education in that province as very unsatisfactory. Girls' primary schools are, it is said even more inefficient than the boys' schools. One inspectress states: "It must be remembered that the key to any lasting improvement must come through the establishment of a first rate system of primary education for all. On this rock alone can educational progress of any country be built. At present in Bengal, the high schools for girls are fighting a losing battle against insecure foundations laid in inefficient primary schools. Little wonder then that their work often becomes in turn a dull and meaningless routine, pursuing the fetish of examination success as its only goal."¹

In the Central Provinces, primary education in the interior is making little headway and there is little co-operation on the part of parents. One inspectress reports that "in most schools staffs are not as helpful as they should be."² It is further reported that "the policy of placing girls' primary education in charge of local bodies does not promise to be successful as most of them maintain an attitude of passive resistance."²

The N. W. F. Province also reports that "municipal committees do not realize the importance of having trained teachers for the babies—all they consider is the cost; and the new schools are generally entrusted to girls who have passed only the primary examination and have no experience of teaching, because they need be paid only Rs. 17 per month (20 less 15 per cent. cut)"³.

Delhi complains that "the rural area receives a stepmotherly treatment with regard to female education. It forms 31 per cent. of the total population of the province but it gets only 1·6 per cent. of the total amount of money spent on girls' education in the province. Government contribution amounts to 51 per cent. of the total direct expenditure on girls' education, but the percentage of Government contribution to girls' education in rural areas hardly comes to 3 per cent."⁴.

23. It is discouraging to find that in many cases girls are still being neglected by the local bodies which are generally responsible for primary education. In 1936, the Women's Education Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education also considered that the control of local bodies over girls' education in some provinces had not been satisfactory in respect not only of the provision of funds but also of general interest and enthusiasm. They recommended that methods to improve this control should be investigated and that provincial Governments should consider the necessity of insisting that all local bodies should spend an adequate proportion of their educational funds on the primary education of girls. The attention of provincial Governments is again directed to this recommendation.

(iv) The provision and training of primary school teachers.

24. Almost all the provincial reports complain of the inadequate supply of women teachers for primary schools for girls. While the increase in the

¹ Bengal, page 93.

² C. P., page 82.

³ N. W. F. P., page 98.

⁴ Delhi, page 114.

number of women teachers in primary schools in British India from 33,524 in 1932 to 40,243 in 1937 and the advance in the percentage of trained women teachers from 51 per cent. to 58 per cent. during the same period are gratifying so far as they go, much leeway has still to be made up. The following table gives the number of women teachers working in primary schools in the provinces.

TABLE LXXXII.

Number of women teachers and of trained women teachers in all primary schools, by provinces.

Province.	Number of primary schools for girls, 1936-37.	Total number of women teachers, 1936-37.	Percentage of trained women teachers in 1931-32.	Percentage of trained women teachers in 1936-37.
Madras	4,812	15,450	76	85
Bombay	1,478	5,116	52	52
Bengal	17,404	5,659	12	13
United Provinces	1,704	2,474	11	16
Punjab	1,830	3,408	39	54
Burma	631	1,738	86	92
Bihar	2,027	1,623	27	28
Central Provinces and Berar	177	1,121	49	56
Assam	763	765	16	15
North-West Frontier Province	126	399	25	42
Sind	361	685	(a)	37
Orissa	422	204	(a)	75
Coorg	10	32	96	97
Delhi	59	225	59	89
Ajmer-Merwara	44	123	42	58
Baluchistan	3	16	64	44
Bangalore	28	191	83	89
Other Administered Areas	31	176	54	70
British India	32,333	40,243	51	58

(a) In 1932, Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

As these figures include the women teachers employed in boys' primary schools, the number of whom in Madras and Bombay is considerable, they do not give a correct estimate of the women teachers employed in girls' primary schools. Although the actual number of men teachers employed in girls' schools is unknown, men teachers are still employed to a large extent in primary schools for girls, especially in Bengal, Bihar, Assam and Orissa.

In Bengal "nearly all girls' schools have men teachers ; they are employed because they are cheap ; nearly all of them are teachers in boys' schools and are willing enough to undertake this additional work for exceedingly small allowances."¹ In Bihar, a district inspectress stigmatizes most of the teachers employed in girls' primary schools "as old, lazy, uncertificated men who have proved unfit for boys' schools."²

25. Another disappointing feature is that in some provinces women teachers are known to be available but are not being employed. The Bombay Report for instance states that in certain districts the local authorities seem to prefer to appoint men to vacancies in girls' schools in spite of women being obtainable. Burma reports that the lack of women teachers in vernacular schools is not due to lack of recruits to the teaching profession ; there are at present over 1,000 unemployed qualified women teachers in the country. It considers that the main causes are that men find less difficulty than women in establishing new schools and that male managers of vernacular schools are reluctant to take the responsibility of looking after unmarried girls, who have to live away from their homes.

26. A further difficulty which is being experienced in all the provinces is that girl teachers do not desire to go to places far away from their homes. Bengal reports that social conditions are not yet favourable for single women to work in villages away from their homes, unless they have relatives there and that such trained women as are available often prefer to work in towns rather than go out to villages in the interior of the districts. The Bombay Report also refers to the difficulty of posting women teachers to isolated places or even outside their own taluks. In Sind also, owing to the absence of security, urban school mistresses are unwilling to go out into the districts. In Burma, parents are reported to be reluctant to allow their unmarried daughters to live away from them. Bihar reports that social custom and public opinion alike point to home as the proper place for a woman and to marriage as the *summum bonum*.

Such is the situation. Serious efforts are therefore required to persuade girls of good education to take up teaching, to provide adequate facilities for their training and to ensure that when they start teaching they will be able to work under reasonably safe and comfortable conditions whether they are employed in towns or villages.

27. The table below gives the number of training schools for women and their enrolment.

¹ Bengal, page 93.

² Bihar, page 117.

TABLE LXXXIII.

Number of training schools for women and their enrolment.

Province.	Training schools.		Enrolment.		Total No. of women under training, 1937.
	1932.	1937.	1932.	1937.	
Madras	64	67	3,232	3,543	3,558
Bombay	(a) 21	(a) 17	803	917	946
Bengal	10	11	234	271	287
United Provinces	45	54	412	634	634
Punjab	18	23	853	821	628
Burma	22	12	511	297	457
Bihar	(a) 11	(a) 9	249	234	234
Central Provinces and Berar	8	8	337	396	396
Assam	2	2	22	32	33
North-West Frontier Province	1	1	48	50	50
Sind	(a)	4	(a)	91	91
Orissa	(a)	3	(a)	58	60
Coorg
Delhi	1	1	53	64	64
Ajmer-Merwara	1	1	14	20	20
Baluchistan
Bangalore	3	2	86	48	48
Other Administered Areas	2	2	91	103	103
British India	209	217	6,945	7,379	7,609

(a) As in 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay and Orissa of Bihar and they were constituted into separate provinces in 1936-37, the figures for 1932 and 1937 are not strictly comparable.

The number of training schools for women has risen from 209 in 1932 to 217 in 1937 with an additional enrolment of 434. The total number of women under training in British India is 7,609. Of these, 3,268 are Hindus or Buddhists, 3,166 Indian Christians, 759 Muslims, and 88 Sikhs.

Madras, which is an advanced province in the field of female education, has as many as 3,558 women under training, i.e., about half of the total number of women under training in the whole of British India. Next comes Bombay with 946 women under training. It is reported that in that province facilities for training women compare very favourably with those for training men. In Bengal, Bihar and Assam, where there is a great dearth of women teachers, there are only 287, 234 and 33 women respectively under training.

The Bengal Report states that "the facilities for the training of women teachers in the province are very meagre indeed, even more so than in the case of men. The output of trained women teachers is thus very small and unless the schools are improved and their numbers increased, it will be exceedingly difficult to train an adequate number of women teachers for the province for many years to come."¹

Bihar also reports that "there is an increasing demand for trained women teachers from every quarter. No real progress can be expected in the teaching and organization of girls' schools unless trained women teachers replace the old and untrained male teachers in them."²

The writer of the Assam Report states that in Assam "the only institutions for the training of women teachers are the Mission Schools at Silchar and Nowgong. Without wishing to detract in the least from the splendid work done by the Welsh and American ladies in these schools I cannot help feeling that it is high time that Government should open a Government training school for women in each valley.....I believe that if Government training schools for women were established, the demand for admission would exceed the capacity of the school."³

In Burma, the number of training schools or classes has fallen from 22 in 1932 to 12 in 1937. This is attributed mainly to the fact that advantage has been taken of the increasing supply of teachers with higher qualifications to abolish gradually the number of elementary training classes.

It is evident that in many provinces adequate facilities are not available for the training of women teachers. This is an important matter which should receive the serious attention of the responsible authorities.

28. The following table shows the expenditure on the training schools for women.

¹ Bengal, page 139.

² Bihar, page 118.

³ Assam, page 45.

TABLE LXXXIV.

Expenditure on training schools for women and average annual cost per pupil therein.

Province.	Expenditure.					Average annual cost per pupil.	
	Government funds.	Board funds	Fees	Other sources.	Total.	1932.	1937.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Madras ..	5,83,439	..	6,931	1,15,377	7,33,730	220 14 10	207 10 7
Bombay ..	1,76,151	16,150	18,926	58,763	2,69,900	209 14 8	204 6 10
Bengal ..	66,570	..	3,537	19,560	89,667	359 3 2	330 14 0
United Provinces ..	1,64,417	23	10,193	20,783	1,95,431	486 7 6	303 4 0
Punjab ..	73,529	40	2,360	5,013	80,912	136 5 2	130 5 6
Burma ..	41,263	6,856	48,121	143 1 1	162 0 4
Bihar ..	51,093	..	718	6,702	58,513	240 12 9	250 0 11
Central Provinces and Berar.	53,230	..	2,632	9,607	63,769	195 13 5	166 2 2
Assam ..	4,402	276	4,678	139 5 10	146 3 0
North-West Frontier Province.	18,620	18,620	325 5 8	372 6 5
Sind ..	21,618	200	929	3,420	26,167	(a)	287 8 9
Orissa ..	15,415	2,272	17,687	(a)	304 15 2
Coorg
Delhi ..	15,603	15,603	317 10 10	243 8 0
Ajmer-Merwara ..	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	273 5 9	(b)
Baluchistan
Bangalore ..	1,800	..	6,501	5,001	13,302	112 10 3	277 2 0
Other Administered Areas.	185	..	848	12,531	13,564	138 5 8	131 11 0
British India ..	1,287,337	16,604	33,803	2,95,990	16,53,824	232 11 10	224 14 2

(a) In 1932, Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar.

(b) There is only one training school for women in Ajmer-Merwara. Its expenditure has been included in the expenditure on vernacular middle schools and has not been shown separately.

The expenditure on these schools, which are maintained chiefly for training women teachers for primary schools, has increased by Rs. 37,465 from Rs. 16,16,359 in 1932 to Rs. 16,53,824 in 1937. This increase of Rs. 37 thousands as against an increase of over Rs. 8 lakhs in the expenditure on primary schools for girls indicates that an adequate proportion of the additional funds that become available is not being devoted to the training of women teachers.

(v) Secondary schools for girls.

29. The following tables show the number of secondary (*i.e.*, high and middle) schools for girls and their enrolment.

TABLE LXXXV.

High schools for girls and their enrolment.

Province.	Institutions.			Pupils.		
	1932.	1937.	Increase.	1932.	1937.	Increase.
Madras	65	70	5	16,360	21,040	4,680
Bombay	60	65	(a)	14,449	17,589	(a)
Bengal	61	85	24	15,644	22,367	6,723
United Provinces ..	29	31	2	6,354	9,691	3,337
Punjab	40	42	2	12,263	11,558	-705
Burma	25	36	11	7,606	10,440	2,834
Bihar	7	10	(a)	1,822	2,294	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar.	11	13	2	363	581	221
Assam	6	16	10	1,937	3,936	1,993
North-West Frontier Province.	2	3	1	366	570	204
Sind	(a)	10	(a)	(a)	3,204	(a)
Orissa	(a)	2	(a)	(a)	515	(a)
Coorg	1	1	..	250	392	142
Delhi	3	6	3	720	1,888	1,168
Ajmer-Merwara ..	3	4	1	291	533	242
Baluchistan	1	1	..	50	50
Bangalore	6	7	1	1,511	1,901	390
Other Administered Areas.	5	6	..	1,313	1,575	262
British India ..	324	410	86	81,249	110,133	28,884

(a) In 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay and Orissa of Bihar, while in 1936-37 they were constituted into separate provinces. Hence no comparison has been made.

TABLE LXXXVI.

Middle schools (Anglo-vernacular and vernacular) for girls and their enrolment.

Province.	Institutions.			Pupils.		
	1932.	1937.	Increase(+) or decrease(--).	1932.	1937.	Increase(+) or decrease(--).
Madras ..	43	46	+3	6,408	7,020	+612
Bombay ..	43	39	(a)	3,531	3,804	(a)
Bengal ..	70	104	+34	8,606	12,825	+4,219
United Provinces	242	322	+80	33,600	49,357	+15,757
Punjab ..	135	195	+60	28,135	44,113	+15,978
Burma ..	108	79	-29	14,590	11,317	-3,273
Bihar ..	32	36	(a)	5,186	6,182	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar.	60	73	+13	6,531	8,414	+1,883
Assam ..	48	54	+6	5,413	7,034	+1,621
North-West Frontier Province.	26	29	+3	4,773	6,071	+1,298
Sind ..	(a)	8	(a)	(a)	499	(a)
Orissa ..	(a)	12	(a)	(a)	1,876	(a)
Coorg
De'hi ..	11	13	+2	2,378	3,020	+642
Ajmer-Merwara ..	8	6	-2	234	253	+19
Baluchistan ..	6	1	-5	1,230	89	-1,150
Bangalore ..	7	5	-2	1,252	1,032	-220
Other Administered Areas.	8	8	..	913	1,162	+249
British India ..	847	1,030	+183	122,780	164,059	+41,279

(a) In 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay and Orissa of Bihar, while in 1936-37 they were constituted into separate provinces. Hence no comparison has been made.

The total number of secondary schools for girls has increased by 269 from 1,171 in 1932 to 1,440 in 1937 and their enrolment by 70,163 from 204,029 to 274,192. These figures of enrolment, however, do not give a correct picture as they include a very large number of girls in the primary departments of these schools. A more reliable estimate of the number of girls in the secondary stage can be obtained from the tables below.

TABLE LXXXVII.

Number of girls in the high stage.

Province.		1932.	1937.	Increase.
Madras	..	2,992	5,330	2,338
Bombay	..	4,631	6,129	(a)
Bengal	..	3,855	7,385	3,530
United Provinces	..	543	1,082	539
Punjab	..	1,011	1,125	114
Burma	..	1,780	2,433	653
Bihar	..	360	607	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar	..	380	714	334
Assam	..	548	1,087	539
North-West Frontier Province	..	27	67	40
Sind	..	(a)	1,592	(a)
Orissa	..	(a)	184	(a)
Coorg	..	45	65	20
Delhi	..	115	287	172
Ajmer-Merwara	..	99	145	46
Baluchistan
Bangalore	..	107	324	217
Other Administered Areas	..	187	240	53
British India	..	16,680	29,399	12,719

(a) In 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay and Orissa of Bihar, while in 1936-37 they were constituted into separate provinces. Hence no comparison has been made.

TABLE LXXXVIII.

Number of girls in the middle stage.

Province.		1932.	1937.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
Madras	..	18,067	34,345	+16,278
Bombay	..	19,239	29,164	(a)
Bengal	..	4,916	8,418	+3,502
United Provinces	..	5,289	10,258	+4,967
Punjab	..	6,063	10,036	+3,973
Burma	..	10,214	9,376	-838
Bihar	..	1,111	1,912	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar	..	2,575	5,024	+2,449
Assam	..	2,161	3,866	+1,702
North-West Frontier Province	..	1,041	1,742	+701
Sind	..	(a)	3,093	(a)
Orissa	..	(a)	511	(a)
Coorg	..	268	294	+26
Delhi	..	618	1,241	+596
Ajmer-Merwara	..	190	204	+104
Baluchistan	..	125	..	-125
Bangalore	..	540	849	+309
Other Administered Areas	..	693	853	+160
British India	..	73,111	122,207	+49,096

(a) In 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay and Orissa of Bihar, while in 1936-37 they were constituted into separate provinces. Hence no comparison has been made.

It is gratifying to note that the number of girls in the high stage has risen by 12,719 from 16,680 in 1932 to 29,399 in 1937 and that of girls in the middle stage by 49,096 from 73,111 to 122,207. Of the girls in the high stage, 17,126 are Hindus, 4,790 Indian Christians, 1,424 Parsees, 1,489 Muslims and 298 Sikhs.

There has been a striking advance in the number of girl candidates for Matriculation also, as is indicated in the table below.

TABLE LXXXIX.

Girl Candidates for Matriculation or High School Final Examination.

Province.	Number of candidates.		Successful candidates.	
	1932.	1937.	1932.	1937.
Madras ..	514	969	542	946
Bombay ..	751	1,810	375	597
Bengal ..	608	1,016	394	1,019
United Provinces..	250	796	139	495
Punjab ..	551	1,304	336	1,176
Burma ..	667	436	281	179
Bihar ..	39	33	13	26
Central Provinces and Berar ..	90	266	49	168
Assam ..	78	208	53	143
North-West Frontier Province ..	8	62	6	49
Sind ..	(a)	381	(a)	103
Orissa ..	(a)	8	(a)	3
Coorg ..	11	12	10	10
Delhi ..	74	168	47	78
Ajmer-Merwara ..	19	15	..	7
Baluchistan
Bangalore ..	11	37	3	25
Other Administered Areas ..	17	52	10	28
British India ..	3,727	8,563	2,258	5,083

(a) In 1932, Sind formed part of Bombay and Orissa of Bihar.

30. In Madras, the number of secondary schools for girls has increased from 108 to 116 during the quinquennium. There has been a marked improvement in their accommodation and equipment also. But the same progress has not been made in the use of modern methods of teaching beyond an attempt to introduce the Dalton plan in a few schools.

In Bombay, there has been not only a quantitative but also a general qualitative advance in the girls' secondary schools. Where it has been possible to secure a good headmistress and some good assistant women teachers, the tone and work are said to have improved enormously.

In Bengal, though the number of girls' high schools has increased, the amount available for helping them with grants has remained practically stationary. It is reported that these schools are, generally speaking, financially less stable than the ordinary boys' high schools. "Though there has been a greater demand for higher secondary education for girls, the horizon of the parents is generally bounded by the school curriculum, and the true aims of secondary education are but imperfectly realized in the majority of the girls' schools."¹ The author of the Bengal Report observes that "unless girls' schools ceased to be mere imitations of the boys' schools and the education given in them ceased to be mainly, if not solely, intended to get the girls over the not very difficult hurdle of the Matriculation Examination, the increase in the number of schools and of girls in these schools need raise no great hopes for the future."²

In the United Provinces, the greatest expansion during the quinquennium has been at the high stage. Here also, as in the intermediate stage, the enrolment has nearly doubled itself. The number of girls now in the high stage is 1,082 against 543 in the year 1932.

In the Punjab, while the number of high schools for girls has increased by 2 from 40 in 1932 to 42 in 1937, their enrolment has fallen by 705 from 12,263 to 11,558 during the same period. The enrolment of the middle schools for girls, however, has gone up by 15,978. Improvement in teaching is also discernible as the outcome of the introduction of newer and more enlightened methods in most schools.

In Burma, the number of middle schools for girls has decreased from 108 in 1932 to 79 in 1937, with a fall of 3,273 pupils. This is attributed to the prevailing economic conditions, and a hope is expressed that this arrest of progress may be only temporary. The fall of 3,273 pupils in the middle schools is, however, counterbalanced by a rise of 2,834 pupils in the high schools.

¹Bengal, page 95.

²Bengal, page 97.

In Bihar, there is a steady increase in the number of girls in high schools. Two Bihari girls passed the Matriculation examination in 1936 and three in 1937.

In the Central Provinces, the number of secondary schools for girls has increased from 71 in 1932 to 86 in 1937 with an additional enrolment of 2,101.

In Assam, the number of girls in high schools more than doubled itself during the quinquennium. The provincial report states that additional grants are urgently needed for girls' high schools, of which there should be one in every sub-division, while in the larger towns there is already a demand for more than one school.

The Sind Report states that the increase in the number of secondary schools for girls and of the girls in them shows that secondary education among girls is growing in popularity. The girls' high schools at Karachi and Hyderabad are overcrowded. A girls' school specially intended for Muslim girls was started in 1935-36 and received special treatment in the matter of grant.

In Delhi, the number of high school has increased by 3 and that of girls in attendance by 1,108. With the exception of the M. R. Girls High School, New Delhi, all the high schools in Delhi are under private management. "Each has its own point of view and cannot meet the educational demand of a particular type of home. One school definitely aims at providing for girls who belong to respectable families and whose parents can afford to pay for the education of their daughter. It is not to train young ladies who will be the wives of prominent officials and leaders of society. Another aims exclusively at the ideals of mother state, while a third wants to produce women who will ultimately settle down as wives in humble walks of life with some professional training as that of nursing, health visiting or teaching as sources of economic help to supplement the home income."¹

In Ajmer-Merwara, though there has been an increase of only 1 high school for girls during the quinquennium as against that of 2 in the last quinquennium, an increase of 83 per cent. in the number of pupils attending high schools is recorded in 1937 against that of only 55 per cent. in 1932. The number of middle schools has decreased by 2 but their enrolment has increased by 19 pupils.

It is pleasing to note that while there was no high school for girls in Baluchistan during the last quinquennium, one has now been established. The number of middle schools for girls has decreased by 5 with a fall of 1,150 pupils. This is due to the disastrous earthquake of 1935. This arrest of progress is only a temporary phase.

31. The following table shows the number of women teachers in secondary schools.

¹Delhi, page 105.

TABLE XC.

Number and percentage of trained women teachers in secondary schools.

Province.		Total number of teachers.	Number of trained teachers.	Percentage of trained teachers.
Madras	1,634	1,467	88.7
Bombay	1,414	681	48.2
Bengal	1,601	746	46.6
United Provinces	2,837	1,561	55.0
Punjab	2,235	1,675	74.9
Burma	2,335	2,099	89.9
Bihar	468	316	67.5
Central Provinces and Berar	470	334	71.1
Assam	401	157	39.2
North-West Frontier Province	285	150	52.6
Sind	221	46	20.8
Orissa	123	105	85.4
Coorg	16	8	50.0
Delhi	233	215	92.3
Ajmer-Merwara	84	50	59.5
Baluchistan
Bangalore	203	159	78.3
Other Administered Areas	170	105	61.8
British India	14,750	9,874	66.9

The total number of women teachers in secondary schools has increased by 2,872 from 11,878 in 1932 to 14,750 in 1937, while the percentage of trained women teachers has risen from 65 per cent. to 66.9 per cent. only. It is evident that the provision for the training of women teachers for secondary schools is not keeping pace with the rapid expansion of girls' education.

32. The table below shows the number of training colleges for women and their enrolment as well as the total number of women under training in all training colleges, whether for men or for women.

TABLE XCI.
Training Colleges for Women.

Province.	1932.			1937.			No. of women in training colleges for men and women.
	Colleges.	Enrolment.	No. of women in training colleges for men and women.	Colleges.	Enrolment.		
Madras	2	66	66	2	75	75	
Bombay	10	21
Bengal	3	43	43	3	78	78	
United Provinces	11(a)	15	..	9(a)	38	
Punjab	1	29	36	2	119	119	
Burma	91
Central Provinces and Berar	1	8	16	1	20	26	
Assam	
Total ..	7	157	186	8	301	448	

(a) Reading in the University department.

Although the number of women under training has increased by 262 to 448 as compared with the last quinquennium, this is not yet by any means sufficient to meet the growing demand. It is pleasing to note that the Punjab has established one more training college for women during the quinquennium, with the result that the number of women under training in that province has advanced from 36 in 1932 to 119 in 1937.

In New Delhi, a college called the Lady Irwin College was established in 1932 by the All-India Women's Conference on Educational Reform. It provides a three years' course for those who wish to qualify as High School Teachers of Home Science. Other students may seek admission for the Home Course of two years. At present there is a great scarcity of qualified teachers in domestic science in this country and it is hoped that the existence of this college will make a valuable contribution in this respect.

(vi) Collegiate education.

33. The most striking feature of women's education during the quinquennium was the rapid increase in their enrolment in arts colleges. The following table illustrates the position.

TABLE XCIII.

Number of women graduates.

Province.	1932.		1937.	
	Candidates for B. A. and B. Sc. exami- nations (Pass only).	Successful candidates.	Candidates for B. A. and B. Sc. exami- nations (Pass only).	Successful candidates.
Madras	162	56	258	132
Bombay	43	27	90	58
Bengal	87	64	221	111
United Provinces	51	32	144	111
Punjab	56	20	155	133
Burma	25	13	99	21
Bihar
Central Provinces and Berar	13	6	32	17
Assam	1	1	5	5
North-West Frontier Province.	1
Sind	(a)	(a)	32	24
Orissa
Coorg
Delhi	1	1	17	12
Ajmer-Merwara	1	1
Baluchistan
Bangalore	6	4	13	9
Other Administered Areas
British India ..	385	226	978	606

(a) In 1932, Sind formed part of Bombay.

34. There were 31 arts colleges for women in British India with a total enrolment of 2,892 in 1937 as compared with 20 colleges with 1,337 students in 1932. Besides those reading in colleges for women, there were 3,149 women students who were attending the ordinary arts colleges for men. Thus the total number of women students in the arts colleges was 6,041 in 1937 as against 2,966 in 1932. Of these, 3,660 were Hindus, 1,023 Indian Christians, 346 Moslems, 274 Parsees and 131 Sikhs.

In Madras, the number of arts colleges has increased from 6 in 1932 to 7 in 1937 and their enrolment from 509 to 636. There were also 413 girl students receiving education in the arts colleges for men.

There are no separate recognised colleges for women in Bombay, but there were 1,059 girls studying in the arts colleges for men in 1937 as against 704 in 1932.

There is, however, an Indian Women's University in the province. This was established in Poona in 1916 and was transferred to headquarters in Bombay during the quinquennium under review. There are affiliated to it 4 colleges, viz., at Poona, Ahmedabad, Baroda and at Bombay. The total number of students on the rolls of these four colleges in 1936-37 was 210 as against 107 in 1931-32. This increase of nearly 100 per cent. shows that the courses of study pursued in the colleges affiliated to this University are meeting a growing demand. Their main characteristics are that they are specially designed to suit the requirements of girls, and the mother-tongue of the students is used as the medium of instruction,—English, however, being a compulsory subject. External candidates are admitted to the University examinations. During the quinquennium the courses of study were revised with a view to giving students greater opportunities for more advanced work in those subjects for which they felt themselves particularly suited.

The degrees of this University are not recognised and this, to a certain extent, detracts from its popularity. It is, however, doing good work and is providing a large number of teachers for girls' secondary schools, particularly those schools which are affiliated to it.

In Bengal, there were 7 women's colleges in 1937 as against 4 in 1932; of these two were intermediate colleges. There were 366 girls reading in these colleges in 1932. Their number has risen to 1,054 in 1937. There were also 511 girls in men's colleges and University classes in 1937. Here also the higher education of women appears to be making rapid progress.

In the United Provinces, there is only one women's college which prepares girls for university degrees. There are, however, women's departments in some of the universities in that province, e.g., in Benares and Aligarh Universities. Other women's colleges are intermediate colleges which have a full high school attached to them as they are a natural development from that stage.

In the Punjab, the Lahore College for Women and the Kinnaird College have been the only degree colleges for women during the quinquennium under review. Both have been compelled to refuse admission to many students owing to lack of accommodation. Two intermediate colleges for women were, however, established during the period. Their opening probably relieved

the pressure on the accommodation at the two degree colleges for the intermediate classes but it is obvious that they will ultimately increase the demand for admission to the degree classes. The writer of the Punjab Report states that "the question not only of the advisability of opening many intermediate colleges for girls, but the whole problem of the future of collegiate education for girls, needs thoughtful consideration. The opinion expressed by the Principal of the Kinnaird College in her report is, pertinent :—'The opening of other doors than that leading to a purely academic type of education is long overdue. Many girls come to college because there is nothing else to do.'"¹

The separation of Orissa in 1936 deprived the province of Bihar of the only intermediate college for girls, which is at Cuttack. The girls of this province, who wish to go in for university education, have now either to enter men's colleges within the province or to join women's colleges outside it.

In Assam, the foundation of the Lady Keane College in Shillong during the quinquennium is an outstanding event in the development of women's education in that province.

In the Central Provinces also a Central College for women was established during the quinquennium. It had 42 women on the roll in 1937. In addition, 96 women were reading in men's colleges.

In Delhi, the Indraprastha Girls' Intermediate College was raised to the status of a degree college in 1937.

35. The most noticeable feature in college education during the quinquennium was the great increase in the number of women students in arts colleges for men. The Sind Report observes that "this is a happy sign of the times indicative of a great change in the outlook on education on the part of the parents. The old conservatism which will not permit girls to study even in schools beyond a certain age is dying out, and many parents in urban areas send their girls to receive education in men's colleges irrespective of consideration of age."²

The writer of the Bihar Report views this with some misgiving and remarks that "although co-education in the higher stages is making rather rapid progress in this province as in other provinces, there are still reasons to regard it with some misgiving, and in view of the inherent social and educational difficulties in the way of its indefinite extension, the establishment of a separate college for women in Patna may have soon to be considered."³

The author of the Assam Report considers it "entirely wrong that there should be some 40 or 50 girls in a college with some 800 young men without a single lady member on the staff to whom they can take their problems and difficulties. It says much for the discipline and manners of the students and for the tact and care of the Principals and staff that there has been so little trouble so far. The present position is, however, unfair to both sexes; and I consider the appointment of a Lady Warden the most urgent need of both colleges."⁴

¹ Punjab, page 104.

² Sind, page 19.

³ Bihar, page 38.

⁴ Assam, page 28.

It is gratifying to note that suitable provision is now being made in some universities to appoint qualified women teachers and in other ways to look carefully after the needs of the girls. For example, during the quinquennium two lady teachers were appointed in the Dacca University—one in the Department of History and the other in the Department of English. The Allahabad University has established a Women's Advisory Board to advise in regard to matters affecting the higher education of women and the supervision of the Women's Hostel.

CHAPTER VII.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.

This chapter is concerned mainly with institutions which provide training for a profession and either prepare candidates for university degrees or are engaged in work which approximates to that standard.

(i) *Legal Education.*

2. In the Review of 1922-27, it was stated that the demand for training for the legal profession had increased in spite of the fact that the profession was already overcrowded. Since then the total number of students reading for law has declined. During the last decade there was a decrease of 1,826 students, of 1,240 during the last quinquennium and of 586 during the present one. The largest decrease has occurred in Bengal, where the report states "the overcrowding of the legal profession is undoubtedly mainly responsible for the fall in numbers of law students."¹

The following table gives the number and strength of law colleges and law departments for 1932 and 1937.

TABLE XCIV.

Law Colleges and Law Departments.

Province.	Name of institution.	Number of students.		Increase (+) or decrease (-).
		1932.	1937.	
Madras ..	1. Law College, Madras ..	498	512	+14
Bombay ..	2. Government Law College, Bombay ..	601	467	-134
Bengal ..	3. Law College, Ahmedabad ..	165	182	+17
	4. Law College, Poona ..	523	335	-188
	5. Sarwajanik Law College, Surat	52	+52
	6. University Law College, Calcutta ..	2,537	1,836	-701
	7. Ripon Law College, Calcutta ..			
	8. Law Department, Dacca University.	237	122	-115
United Provinces	9. Law Department, Allahabad University.	355	331	-24
	10. Law Department, Aligarh Muslim University.	73	115	+42
	11. Law Department, Benares Hindu University.	112	206	+94
	12. Law Department, Lucknow University.	296	303	+7
	13. Agra University (a) ..	434	617	+183

¹ Bengal, page 140.

(a) The Agra College, Agra, Meerut College, Meerut, Holker College, Indore, S.D. College, Cawnpore, Bareilly College, Bareilly and D. A. V. College, Cawnpore, are the Colleges affiliated to the Agra University which impart legal education.

Law Colleges and Law Departments—contd.

Province.	Name of institution.	Number of students:		Increase (+) or decrease (-).
		1932.	1937.	
Punjab	14. Law College, Lahore	625	597	-28
Burma	15. University College, Rangoon ..	88	79	-9
Bihar	16. Law College, Patna ..	278	305	+27
Central Provinces and Berar.	17. University College of Law, Nagpur.	345	437	+92
	18. Hittkarni Law College, Jubbulpore.	..	37	+37
Assam	19. Earle Law College, Gauhati ..	75	60	-15
Sind	20. Law College, Karachi ..	50	83	+33
Orissa	21. Ravenshaw College, Cuttack (b)	55	51	-4
Delhi	22. Law Department, Delhi University.	98	132	+34
	Total	7,445	6,859	-586

(b) The Ravenshaw College has law classes for legal education.

3. The provincial reports record a few developments in law colleges.

In Madras, in accordance with a change effected in the Regulations of the University relating to the B. L. degree examination, two separate papers are now set for Hindu and Muhammadan Law instead of a single paper on both subjects. For the benefit of those who have no acquaintance with History or Politics, lectures are arranged on Political History to serve as an introduction to the study of Constitutional Law.

In the Government Law College, Bombay, the special innovation during the quinquennium was the organization of a Moot Court. Another feature of the quinquennium was the completion by the Indian Law Society of the comprehensive scheme of buildings required for the Law College at Poona. A new law college was also established at Surat.

In Bengal, the cost of the upkeep of the Law Departments of the Calcutta University and the Ripon College was reduced from Rs. 2,72,060 in 1931-32 to Rs. 1,81,393 in 1936-37.

In the United Provinces a scheme has been sanctioned for providing a course for the LL.M. degree in the Allahabad University. A research degree for the LL.D. has been instituted in the Aligarh Muslim University. In the Benares University the Faculty of Law already confers LL.B., LL.M. and LL.D. degrees.

In the Lucknow University, the Law classes have now been limited to 300 students.

In the Punjab, the regulations relating to the Law College, Lahore, were revised in 1935. Among the changes then made were the extension of the LL.B. degree course from two to three years, the prescription of higher educational and examination standards and the allocation of a full year for the teaching of practical and procedural subjects.

In Bihar, a new building was constructed for the Law College, Patna, at a cost of Rs. 79,000, and the college moved into its present habitation in July 1936.

In the Central Provinces, arrangements for the construction of a new building for the University College of Law are in progress. A new law college was opened at Jubbulpore in 1934 under the management of the Hitkarni Sabha and was affiliated to the Nagpur University early in the following year. There are 37 students in this College.

In Assam, the Earle Law College had its life extended from year to year. The writer of the Assam Report suggests that it is high time that it should be made permanent.

The Punjab High Court accorded permanent recognition to the LL.B. degree of the Delhi University in 1933-34, and thus the law graduates of this University were placed in the same position as the law graduates of the Punjab University with regard to their eligibility to practise before the Punjab High Court. In 1935, the proposal for the extension of the course of instruction in Law leading to the LL.B. degree from 2 to 3 years was communicated to the Delhi University by the Punjab High Court and necessary amendments to the Ordinances were made.

4. The following table shows the main examination results.

TABLE XCV.
Bachelor of Law Examination.

Year.	Number of candidates.	Number of passes.	Percentage of passes.
1931-32	4,300	2,259	52.5
1936-37	4,613	3,003	65.1
Increase	+313	+744	+12.6

These figures show that while in 1931-32 out of 4,300 candidates, 2,259 or only 52·5 per cent. passed, in 1936-37, 4,613 candidates appeared of whom 3,003 or 65·1 per cent. were successful. The Bengal Report observes that "it appears as if either better students were now reading for law or the standard of the examination had become less exacting."¹ The decline in the injudicious rush of students to law colleges is perhaps also responsible for better examination results.

In spite of a large reduction in the total enrolment, there is reason to think that the number of law students is still larger than the profession can profitably absorb. The Burma Report observes that "as the legal profession is already overcrowded, it is surprising that the study of law continues to be so popular."² The Delhi Report ascribes this to the fact that "the legal profession has come to be the last refuge of a graduate because of unemployment."³

(ii) Medical Education.

5. The question of establishing an Indian Medical Council to regulate higher medical qualifications on the lines of the General Medical Council of the United Kingdom had been under consideration by the Government of India for several years. A Medical Council Bill, which was introduced in the Indian Legislature for this purpose, was passed in 1933. The Medical Council of India has, under the powers conferred upon it by the Act, appointed Inspectors who have visited all the medical colleges and examined the courses of study and final examinations for the medical degrees of the universities in British India. After consideration of the Inspectors' reports, the Council has approved of the medical degrees of all these universities, except those of the Andhra University. The question of the recognition of the medical degree of this University is under the consideration of the Executive Committee of the Council.

In order to indicate the minimum requirements which the Council considers necessary for the securing of the requisite knowledge and skill for the practice of medicine, the Council has drawn up a number of recommendations, both on courses of instruction and on examinations, for observance by the teaching and examining bodies, and has lately revised these in the light of recent experience.

The Council has also taken up the question of establishing reciprocal recognition of medical qualifications with such countries as are willing, and, in particular, with the General Medical Council of Great Britain. This body has recognised for registration the qualifications of Bombay, Lucknow, Madras and Patna Universities—of the first three with retrospective effect, i.e., from February 25, 1930, the date from which recognition was withdrawn, as narrated in the last Review. It has also before it at present the recommendations of the Medical Council of India regarding recognition by it of the medical degrees awarded by the Calcutta, Punjab and Rangoon Universities. Negotiations are in progress with various other countries also.

6. The table below gives the main statistics regarding medical colleges in British India.

¹ Bengal, page 140.

² Burma, page 34.

³ Delhi, pages 140-141.

TABLE XCVI.
Medical Colleges.

Province,	Name of College,	Management,	Students,			Expenditure (1937).			Total expenditure.
			1932.	1937.	Gover-	Board	Fees.	Other	
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	1. Medical College, Madras 2. Medical College, Vizagapatam, 3. Grant Medical College, Bombay, 4. South Govindrajan's Standards Medical Col- lege, Bombay.	Government Government Municipal Board.	711 468 305	1,016 790 454	Rs. 6,09,770	Rs. 1,70,964 1,78,775 1,48,977	Rs. 79,828 17,967 1,07,385	Rs. 5,10,230 3,25,525 ..	Rs. 7,60,571 2,80,149 2,66,362
Bombay	5. Medical College, Cal- cutta. 6. School of Tropical Me- dicine and Hygiene, Calcutta.	Government Aided Aided	739 679 237	771 6,61,601 257	Rs. 16,000 .. (a)	Rs. 1,34,766 1,75,930 (a)	Rs. 26,310 .. (a)	Rs. 8,06,650 1,42,043 (a)	Rs. 7,14,650 1,90,930 (a)
Bengal.	7. Carmichael Medical Col- lege, Belgachia, Calcutta. 8. King George's Medical College, Lucknow (Luck- now University).	Aided Aided
United Provinces	9. King Edward Medical College, Lahore.	Government	432	545	Rs. 3,76,540	..	Rs. 71,313	..	Rs. 4,17,147
Punjab	10. Medical College, Rangoon. (Rangoon University).	Aided	62	147	(a)	(a)	(a)	(a)	Rs. 4,47,853
Burma	11. Prince of Wales Medical College, Patna.	Government	217	266	Rs. 1,81,504	..	Rs. 36,780	..	Rs. 2,33,259
Bihar	12. Lady Hardinge Medi- College for Women.	Aided	126	138	Rs. 1,92,095	..	Rs. 35,316	..	Rs. 2,68,860
Delhi			3,910	6,953	Rs. 19,17,029	Rs. 1,48,977	Rs. 9,11,229	Rs. 1,25,203	Rs. 31,02,892

(a) The King George's Medical College, Lucknow, and the Medical College, Rangoon, are maintained directly by the Lucknow and Rangoon Universities respectively. The expenditure on these colleges is not included in this table as separate figures are not available.

The total number of students reading in medical colleges has risen from about 4,000 to over 5,000 during the quinquennium, and the expenditure from Rs. 29 lakhs to Rs. 31 lakhs. Receipts from fees have increased by over Rs. 2½ lakhs and have covered the increased expenditure.

7. Important events in medical education are recorded below.

In Madras, post-graduate courses in clinical medicine and clinical surgery have been instituted in the Government General Hospital, Madras, and post-graduate courses in practical anatomy at the Medical College, Madras. To meet the growing needs of the College consequent on the continued development of the several departments, a new pathology block was completed in 1935 at a cost of about Rs. 12 lakhs.

In the Medical College, Vizagapatam, the opening of a Chemist and Drug-gist Class was sanctioned during the quinquennium, though the class was actually started in July 1937. Extensions were also made to the anatomy and pathology museums of the College.

The Medical Schools at Madura and Coimbatore were abolished during the last quinquennium and the Medical School at Tanjore in 1933 during the present quinquennium. Thus, there are only two Government Medical schools in the Madras presidency, viz, the Stanley Medical School for men and the Lady Willingdon Medical School for Women. Besides these, there is a Missionary Medical School for Women at Vellore aided by Government. The installation of a physical laboratory at the Lady Willingdon Medical School was sanctioned by Government in 1935. Orders were also passed by Government for the construction of one wing of the new buildings of the Stanley Medical School at a cost of Rs. 1,81,000. The building is now under construction.

As an outcome of the report on medical education by the Indian Medical Council, the Madras Medical Council appointed a Sub-Committee in 1935 to enquire into the curricula, methods of teaching and examinations of the medical schools. The Committee has submitted its report which is now under the consideration of Government. The following are the chief recommendations :—

- (1) the present standard of preliminary education is inadequate and the minimum qualification for admission to the preliminary registration class of the medical schools must be an intermediate science pass ;
- (2) a pre-registration course is essential, even though the student has already passed his intermediate science examination and the preliminary registration course should extend over three academic years, as it is impossible adequately to teach the subjects of the syllabus in only two terms.

In Bombay, the standard of qualification for admission to the L.C.P.S. course has been raised to the I.Sc. of the Bombay University, and the period covered by the course has been reduced from 4 to 3½ years. A psychiatric clinic has also been established for the treatment of early mental diseases, and a Professor of Psychiatry has been appointed at the Grant Medical College Bombay.

In 1934, arrangements were made for the training of undergraduates in the diagnosis and treatment of leprosy at the Matunga Leprosy Assylum. It is reported that these arrangements have been working very successfully.

In addition to the Grant Medical College, Bombay, the Medical Department has under its administration two medical schools at Poona and Ahmedabad with an attendance of 375 and 274 students respectively in 1936-37 ; of these 83 and 16 respectively were women. These institutions prepare students for the L.C.P.S. course. The National Medical College, Bombay, is also recognised for sending up candidates for the L.C.P.S. course. It had on its rolls 230 students in 1936-37.

In Bengal, the course for the Membership Examination of the State Medical Faculty, Bengal, was extended from 5 to 6 years, and the extension of the Licentiatehip course from 4 to 5 years, with a raising of the preliminary qualification for admission to medical schools from Matriculation to I.Sc., is under consideration.

In the United Provinces, the King George's College Hospital, Lucknow was enlarged in 1932 by the construction of the Queen Mary's Hospital for Women and Children at a cost of Rs. 2,68,000. As a consequence, medical degrees were reopened to women students. A whole-time resident professor of obstetrics and gynaecology and a lecturer and a Superintendent of Hospitals have also been appointed. In addition, a separate hospital for infectious diseases has been opened, and an Anti-Tuberculosis Institute erected at a cost of Rs. 1,13,238.

In spite of economic difficulties the Medical School at Agra has also effected substantial improvements in the standard of teaching and equipment. Laboratories have been fully equipped and the Anatomical and Pathological Museums rearranged to suit the requirements of practical study in these subjects. The staff of the school has been augmented by the appointment of medical and surgical registrars.

In the Punjab, Government have sanctioned the opening in the King Edward Medical College, Lahore, of post-graduate classes in diseases of the ear, nose and throat, leading to the diploma of D.L.O. The teaching in tuberculosis in the College has been improved, and the number of beds for the tuberculosis ward of the Mayo Hospital, Lahore, has been increased from 24 to 74 and a Clinical Assistant for Tuberculosis has been sanctioned.

Dentistry has been included in the curriculum for the M.B.B.S. degree. Post-graduate courses in dentistry extending over two years in the case of Medical graduates and 1½ years in the case of Licentiates, have been established in the De Montmorency College of Dentistry. A four years' course for the B.D.S. degree of the Punjab University has also been sanctioned for students who have passed F.S. (Medical Group) Examination.

A new medical school, *viz.*, the Medical School for Men, Ludhiana, has been opened during the quinquennium. The system of co-education which was introduced in the King Edward Medical College, Lahore, has been extended to the Medical School, Amritsar, and is working satisfactorily. The number of

professional examinations prior to the Final Examination for the M.B.B.S. degree has been increased from 2 to 3. The system of biennial examination has been introduced in the various examinations for the M.B.B.S. degree and the L.S.M.F. Diploma.

In Burma, the total number of students reading in the Medical College, Rangoon, has increased from 82 in 1932 to 147 in 1937, though only 22 of these are Burmans. Burma reports that "the small number of Burmans who join the College is perturbing. The unpopularity of the medical profession amongst Burmans is probably due to the length of the course and to the difficulty of obtaining Government appointments after graduation."¹

In Bihar, the Principal of the Prince of Wales Medical College, Patna, held charge of the post of Superintendent of the Hospital attached to the College in addition to his own duties until November 14th, 1933, when it was decided to appoint a wholetime Superintendent. As a result of this, the administration of the hospital is now divorced from that of the college. The Bihar Report states that "as it is a teaching hospital where students work in the wards, this leads to complications and there is need for readjustment in the present relations between the college and the hospital to ensure the smooth working of both institutions."²

In the Medical School at Darbhanga in Bihar, the minimum qualification for admission has now been raised to a pass in the second division at the matriculation examination of the Patna University or a pass in the 1st division at the matriculation examination of any other university. The Council of Medical Registration, Bihar and Orissa, has recommended a five years' course for medical schools and an improvement in the standard of the basic education.

In Assam, a new maternity and gynaecological ward has been constructed recently in the Berry-White Medical School, Dibrugarh.

In Sind, there has been an appreciable increase in the admission of women students in the Medical School at Hyderabad (Sind). The minimum qualification for admission to the school has been raised from Matriculation to Intermediate Science, comprising the subjects of chemistry, physics and biology.

In Delhi, the Lady Hardinge Medical College for women continues to retain its all-India character. Owing to the increase in the number of students, an additional hostel has been constructed, and the College is now able to accommodate 148 students without over crowding. A Bio-Chemistry Department has been opened, and various other improvements in the College and its associated hospital are under contemplation. Owing to the pressing need for extra laboratory accommodation, equipment, etc., for medical students and in view of the fact that there are now opportunities for girls to study science in almost every province, it has been decided to abolish the pre-medical science course in the College from the year 1937-38.

S. Mention may also be made here of the All-India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta. This Institute, which was built and equipped by the Rockefeller Foundation, was opened in January 1932 under the control

¹ Burma, page 32.

² Bihar, page 54.

of the Government of India. The object of the Institute is (1) to provide post-graduate training in public health on an All-India basis for medical graduates and other suitably qualified persons and (2) to carry out researches with a view to improving preventive measures and also for the elucidation of public health problems. It offers training for the Diploma in Public Health of the Calcutta University, the Diploma in Public Health and Hygiene of the Faculty of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, Bengal, the Diploma in Maternity and Child Welfare of the Faculty and the Doctorate of Science in Public Health of the University. During the period under review, the Institute, besides conducting researches on different public health subjects, has provided training for 144 students.

9. The following table gives the statistics of the various examinations for medical degrees and diplomas.

TABLE XCVII.
Medical Examinations for degrees and diplomas.

Degrees or Diplomas.	1932.		1937.	
	Number of examinees.	Number of passes.	Number of examinees.	Number of passes.
Doctor of Medicine or Surgery	31	12	26	8
Master of Surgery	19	2	9	3
Bachelor of Medicine and Surgery	1,247	484	1,549	566
Diploma in Hygiene	1	1
Bachelor of Hygiene	11	4	5	2
Bachelor of Sanitary Science	1	1
Diploma in Public Health	33	26	24	20
Diploma in Ophthalmology	4	2	1	1
Licentiate of Medicine and Surgery	63	21
Fellow of the College of Physicians and Surgeons	1	..
Member of the State Faculty of Medicine	21	10	30	20
Master of Obstetrics	1
Diploma in Tropical Medicine	38	31	34	23
Bachelor of Dental Surgery	3	3
Total ..	1,470	594	1,682	645
Percentage of passes	40.4	..	38.3

(iii) *Forestry.*

10. The Indian Forest Service College, Dehra Dun, which provided training for probationers recruited in India for appointment to the All-India Service, had to be closed down in November 1932, as the number of students gradually decreased and sufficient support for its continuance was not forthcoming from the provinces. During the period only two Indian Forest Service Diplomas were issued.

The Rangers' College, Dehra Dun, which provided a two-year course for non-gazetted forest rangers was also, owing to restricted recruitment, temporarily closed down in 1933, but it was reopened in April 1935 with a class of 27 students. Thirty-six students completed the course during the quinquennium.

The Forest College, Coimbatore, continues to provide a course extending over a period of 23 months (August to June). Approximately five months in the year are spent in camps and are devoted mainly to practical work. Among the camps made by the Junior Division students may be mentioned the camp at Ayyalur in the Madura district for the study of Rab and Kumeri methods of regeneration in felled fuel coupes. A ten days' practical course of field engineering for the Senior Division students with the Queen Victoria's Own Madras Sappers and Miners at Bangalore was introduced in 1934. One hundred and eighteen students were admitted to the College during the quinquennium and 108 passed out.

The three-year course in forestry leading to a B.Sc. degree in the University of Rangoon was continued during 1932-33 and 1933-34. Eleven candidates appeared for the examination during these two years, of whom 8 passed. Since 1934-35, owing to financial stringency no recruitment to this class has been made.

(iv) *Agriculture.*

11. Facilities for general training and for post-graduate work in agricultural sciences continued to be available at the agricultural colleges.

The Imperial Agricultural Research Institute, which is a central institution for agricultural training, was transferred from Pusa to New Delhi in 1936. The post-graduate courses have received the recognition of Government in that the successful students will now be awarded a diploma, viz. the "Assoc. I.A.R.I.". During the quinquennium 66 post-graduate students were admitted to the Institute of whom 42 (including 6 admitted in previous years) passed out; of those who passed out 33 have obtained employment. The high percentage of the students who have secured employment in scientific research is a testimony to the value of the education given at the Institute.

With a view to making more adequate provision for the systematic development of dairying in India, orders were passed by the Government of India separating from the 1st April 1936 the Imperial Dairy Expert's Section from the administrative control of the Director of the Imperial Agricultural Research Institute and placing it directly under the Education, Health and Lands Department of the Government of India. It now undertakes advisory and educational functions as well as research and experiment. In addition to giving

various courses of instructions in dairying, including that for the Indian Dairy Diploma, this office is intended to advise provincial departments and the general public in matters of all kinds which affect dairying in India and to carry out research on such matters.

It is hoped that sooner or later Agricultural Colleges in India will possess the necessary staff and equipment and will be able to train pupils for the Indian Dairy Diploma, but for the present the necessary course of instruction will be continued at the Imperial Dairy Institute, Bangalore, which is a central institution. Of the 32 students who qualified for the Indian Dairy Diploma, 11 are employed in Government, State or private service, 2 have taken up dairying as a private enterprise and one is undergoing higher training in Europe.

12. The main statistics of the provincial colleges of agriculture are given in the table below.

TABLE XCVIII.

Agricultural Colleges.

Province.	Name of institution.	1932.		1937.	
		Enrolment.	Expenditure.	Enrolment.	Expenditure.
Madras ..	1. Agricultural College, Coimbatore.	150	Rs. 1,18,808	108	Rs. 1,47,174
Bombay ..	2. Agricultural College, Poona.	231	1,70,653	195	1,53,883
United Provinces ..	3. Government Agricultural College, Cawnpore. 4. Allahabad Agricultural Institute, Naini.	168	1,30,485	155	1,48,928
Punjab ..	5. Punjab Agricultural College, Lyalipur.	30	27,009	190	51,939
Burma ..	6. Agricultural College, Mandalay.	217	1,31,600	209	1,56,499
Central Provinces and Berar.	7. College of Agriculture, Nagpur.	26	2,19,599	(a)	(a)
		101	78,613	151	70,812

(a) The Agricultural College, Mandalay, ceased to function at the beginning of the quinquennium.

There has been a decrease in the enrolment of some colleges. This is probably due as much to economic depression as to the raising of standards, though the Principal of the Agricultural College, Poona, reports that the decrease in the number of students in this college is mainly due to the higher standard for a pass fixed by the Bombay University.

13. The main developments that have occurred in these Colleges during the quinquennium are reported below.

In Madras, the syllabus for the B. Sc. (Ag.) Degree course was revised in 1932. Under the new system students have to appear for the University Examination at the end of each year of the degree course of three years and the standard for admission to the Agricultural College, Coimbatore, has been raised to a pass in the Intermediate Examination, including chemistry and two of the other six prescribed subjects. In 1933-34, the regulations of the Madras University were so amended as to permit a Bachelor of Science in Agriculture to submit a thesis for the M.Sc. degree.

In 1933-34, a short course in practical agriculture lasting from July to March was instituted to meet the needs of young men who cannot undergo the full university course.

In Bombay during the year 1931-32, the Bombay University revised the degree courses and instituted a new course of B.Sc. (Agri.) from June 1934.

In the United Provinces, the Government Agricultural College, Cawnpore, trains students for the Intermediate Examination in Agriculture of the Board of High School and Intermediate Education and for the B. Sc. (Agri.) degree of the Agra University. The courses of study for the B. Sc. (Agri.) degree were revised during the quinquennium.

In the Allahabad Agricultural Institute, which is an aided institution run by the American Presbyterian Mission, the most important development was the establishment of the degree course in agriculture in 1932. Prior to this, students of this Institute passing the Intermediate Examination in Agriculture had great difficulty in securing admission to a college for the degree course.

In the Punjab Agricultural College, Lyallpur, the standard of qualification of students has improved—60 per cent. of the candidates admitted in 1936 had passed the Matriculation in the first division. An interesting innovation was the application of intelligence tests to all new entrants.

In the College of Agriculture, Nagpur, substantial progress is reported to have been made in the direction of providing adequate facilities for post-graduate studies. A degree of Master of Agriculture was instituted to encourage specialization and research in the sciences associated with agriculture.

The Khalsa College, Amritsar, has also been affiliated to the Punjab University for the B. Sc. degree in agriculture.

14. The most encouraging feature connected with agricultural education has been that the amount of unemployment among ex-students of the different institutions is said to be comparatively small. Of a total of 281 students passed from the Poona College during the period 1931-36, about 190 were employed in agriculture and other departments. At Cawnpore out of the 173 candidates who passed in five years (1932-37), 55 were absorbed in the Agricultural Service. In the Punjab, almost all the graduates of the Agricultural College get employment in the agricultural or other services. Several of them have been provided with land by Government and have settled down as farmers. Since 1931, 22 students have graduated from the Khalsa College, Amritsar, and so far as is known, none of them has remained unemployed.

The Principal reports that these graduates have been able to secure employment more easily than graduates in arts or other sciences. At Nagpur, out of 106 students who passed the final examination during the quinquennium, 46 secured employment in the agricultural department. It is reported that the right type of students now seeks admission, and the number of openings for graduates from this College is increasing. In Madras, 172 students passed since 1933 and the majority of them entered the agricultural department.

Another marked feature has been the comparatively large number of candidates who go abroad for higher education in agriculture, unfortunately complete statistics are not available, but the Principal of the Agricultural College, Coimbatore, reports that so far as is known, 9 Madras students went abroad, 7 to England and 2 to America.

15. The Imperial Council of Agricultural Research continues to secure the co-operation of Indian universities in the prosecution of agricultural research. Up to the end of the year 1936-37 research grants aggregating Rs. 5,87,960 have been sanctioned to 8 universities for 16 schemes. The fresh schemes sanctioned by the Council during the quinquennium were for the work on

- (i) the physiology of cane and wheat, at the Benares Hindu University,
- (ii) the developmental morphology and anatomy of sugarcane-sorghum hybrids and wild saccharums, at the Madras University,
- (iii) organic constituents of Indian soils, at the Dacca University,
- (iv) nitrogen fixation in soils, at the Allahabad University, and
- (v) investigations of the electric method of hygrometry, at the Punjab University.

Another important event during the period was the scientific stock-taking of the Council's research activities carried out during 1936-37 by Sir John Russell, Director of the Rothamsted Experimental Station. His recommendations on the university schemes are as follows :—" Part of the Council's funds should be used for promoting scientific research at the universities on subjects basic to the science and practice of agriculture. This financial aid, however, should be essentially personal : it should be given in order to enable an investigator of proved capacity to develop further his own main line of research. No question of possible practical value should be raised: in training for research it is the man and not the subject that matters."

The first part of the recommendation is in accordance with the present practice as the Council has made substantial grants to several universities for the carrying out of specific investigations. The last portion of Sir John Russell's recommendation was considered by the Governing Body of the Council and has been noted for further consideration.

(v) Veterinary Colleges.

16. There are five veterinary colleges in British India, as in the last quinquennium. These are at Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, Lahore and Patna. The main statistics regarding the expenditure and enrolment of these colleges are given in the following table.

TABLE XCIX.
Veterinary Colleges.

Province.	Name of College.	Enrolment.		Expenditure in 1936-37.			Total expenditure.	
		1932.	1937.	Government funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	1932.	1937.
Madras ..	1. Veterinary College, Madras.	125	101	58,916	18,937	34	86,692	77,887
Bombay ..	2. Veterinary College, Bombay.	116	113	(a)	(a)	(a)	(a)	(a)
Bengal ..	3. Veterinary College, Belgachia, Calcutta.	169	164	1,67,284	1,88,394	1,67,284
Punjab ..	4. Punjab Veterinary College, Lahore.	143	133	1,65,030	33,740	..	1,71,444	1,98,770
Bihar ..	5. Bihar Veterinary College, Patna.	52	74	69,438	7,149	6,750	59,526	83,337

(a) Figures not available.

(b) Represents contribution from the Govts. of the United Provinces and Orissa.

The Veterinary College, Madras, has been recognised by the University of Madras as a constituent college of the University for the degree of Bachelor of Veterinary Science, and arrangements have been made to introduce a degree course from the academic year 1936-37.

The Veterinary College, Bombay, has maintained its popularity as may be judged from the very great number of applicants for admission from all parts of India and abroad. There has been no deterioration in the standard of efficiency of the students, and the results in examinations, both written and oral, have been satisfactory.

The Veterinary College, Calcutta, also continues to be popular and its enrolment is steadily increasing. The rules regarding the admission of students to the College were revised in 1936.

In the Punjab Veterinary College, useful research work continued to be carried on in the pathology and parasitology sections. A nine months' course for training farriers in hot and cold shoeing of horses and cattle and another course of three months' duration for dressers were started during the quinquennium.

During the years under report, the Bihar Veterinary College also made satisfactory progress and admissions were on the up-grade. In 1935-36, a detailed syllabus of lectures was drawn up.

17. It is reported that the graduates of these colleges are generally able to secure employment and in some areas the demand for them is great. For example, the Bombay Report states that "at present the demand is so much that no graduate is available for service" ¹.

18. The question of providing proper facilities for veterinary education of the highest standard in India, such as would secure international recognition and equip young Indians for appointment to the Indian Army Veterinary

Corps or the superior provincial veterinary services, has long been under the consideration of the Government. With a view to implementing the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Agriculture in this respect, the matter was discussed at the second meeting of the Animal Husbandry Wing of the Board of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry in India held at Madras in 1936, and a proposal has since been put forward for the establishment of a Central Veterinary College at Izatnagar, in which the course of instruction will be of five years' duration and the syllabus practically the same as that for the M. R. C. V. S. course in the United Kingdom. This proposal is at present under the consideration of the Government of India.

The Imperial Veterinary Research Institute, Mukteswar, continued to give post-graduate training during the quinquennium and 77 officers availed themselves of it. The Physiological Chemist Section of the Imperial Dairy Institute, Bangalore, was transferred to the control of this Institute and located at Izatnagar and has been renamed the Animal Nutrition Section of the Imperial Veterinary Research Institute.

(vi) *Engineering Colleges.*

19. The table below gives the enrolment and expenditure of engineering colleges in British India.

TABLE C.
Engineering Colleges.

Province.	Name of College.	1932.		1937.	
		Enrol- ment.	Expendi- ture.	Enrol- ment.	Expendi- ture.
Madras	1. College of Engineering, Guindy ..	233	Ra. 1,92,450	300	Rs. 1,95,042
Bombay	2. College of Engineering, Poona ..	172	2,05,204	216	2,07,374
Bengal	3. Bengal Engineering College, Sibpur	307	3,98,599	285	3,35,260
United Provinces	4. Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee.	183	1,87,278	136	1,60,610
	5. Engineering College, Benares Hindu University.	564	(a)	504	(a)
Punjab	6. MacLagan Engineering College, Moghulpura, Lahore.	235	2,57,661	253	1,98,929
Burma	7. The Burmah Oil Company College of Engineering, Rangoon (Rangoon University).	51	(a)	54	(a)
Bihar	8. Bihar College of Engineering, Patna.	252	1,42,680	278	1,64,925
Sind	9. Nadirshaw Edulji Dinshaw Engineering College, Karachi.	149	94,641	218	96,191
	Total ..	2,171	14,78,513	2,253	13,78,331

(a) Separate figures not available.

While the total enrolment has advanced from 2,171 in 1932 to 2,253 in 1937, the expenditure has been reduced from Rs. 14,78,513 to Rs. 13,78,331. The reduction is mainly due to financial depression.

20. The provincial reports record the following developments in these colleges.

In Madras, the subordinate engineering classes of the School of Engineering at Vizagapatam, which was abolished from July 1932, were amalgamated with the College of Engineering at Guindy. The additions and extensions to the Electrical Laboratory of the College have been completed and the erection of machinery is proceeding. The College keeps in close touch with engineering firms and employers with a view to securing employment for passed students.

In the College of Engineering, Poona, a course in electrical engineering leading to the degree of B. E. (Electrical) was introduced in 1932-33 and a revised syllabus for this course was approved by the University in 1933-34. A special grant of Rs. 9,700 was sanctioned to improve the equipment of the electrical laboratory of the College consequent on the introduction of the new course. A further additional grant of Rs. 1,700 has also been sanctioned annually for a period of five years from 1934-35. The curriculum of the civil engineering degree course was revised by the University in 1936-37, and some other improvements were also effected in the College.

In the Bengal Engineering College, Sibpur, degree courses were introduced in mechanical and electrical engineering. The College also worked out schemes for the introduction of an alternative course in aeronautics in the course of studies for the B. E. degree examination, a degree course in architecture and a three years' B.Sc. degree course in metallurgy. Though these were not introduced during the period under review, a hope is expressed that their introduction will be sanctioned in the near future. Inspite of the financial stringency, improvements were made in almost all the college laboratories, especially in the laboratories attached to the mechanical engineering and electrical engineering departments.

In the United Provinces the recommendations of the Retirement Committee which sat in 1931, resulted in the reduction of the departments of teaching from five to three in the Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee. They now comprise civil engineering, pure and applied mathematics and mechanical and electrical engineering. Inspite of this, however, the college has maintained its reputation during the quinquennium. Since 1934, the Government of the United Provinces have agreed to take three students per year from the Indian Military Academy for a three-year course in engineering. These are officers destined for engineer commissions in the Indian Army. The first batch joined in 1935, and the second in 1936. The United Provinces Government have now agreed to take up to five a year. To supervise these students, Army Headquarters have posted to the staff of the College a R. E. Officer of field rank.

The Engineering College of the Benares Hindu University continued to provide training in engineering, mining and metallurgy.

In the Maelagan Engineering College, Lahore, a course for "C" class students extending over two sessions each of nine months' duration was sanctioned by Government in 1935 with a view to providing a vocational rather than an educational training for young men of good education who were desirous of seeking careers as artisans or skilled tradesmen, or who wished to qualify themselves for employment in workshops or to start work on their own account. The question of increasing the course to three sessions is at present under consideration. It is reported that competition for entrance to the "C" class was keen. The third bay of the College workshop was completed during the quinquennium and equipped with the necessary plant. Every effort is being made to find openings in the employment market on behalf of students who have satisfactorily completed the course, and it is satisfactory to note that out of 36 students of "A" and "B" classes who passed the examination in 1936, 21 are definitely known to have secured employment.

In the Burmah Oil Company College of Engineering, mechanical and electrical engineering classes were opened for the first time in 1934-35. An electrical laboratory was equipped at a cost of Rs. 40,000, which was borne by the University Endowment Fund.

In the Bihar College of Engineering, the courses of study for the subordinate civil engineering classes were thoroughly revised in 1932-33, important changes being the introduction of instruction in water-supply and sanitary engineering and more insistence on steady and consistent sessional work. The degree of the college has been recognised by the City and Guilds of London Institute, and graduates of the College desirous of obtaining technological certificates of the Institute in certain engineering subjects are now allowed to take the final paper only.

In the Nadirshaw Edulji Dinshaw Engineering College, Karaehi, a class for training wireless operators was started in June 1932, and affiliation for the degree courses in mechanical and electrical engineering was granted by the University of Bombay from June 1934. About Rs. 30,000 were spent on equipping the electrical laboratory and the mechanical workshops. Extensions have also been made to the existing workshops at a cost of Rs. 10,000 to accommodate the new classes.

21. The Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad, Bihar, is a central institution. Details as regards the number of students and courses at this institution were given in the last Review. As was then stated, its diploma has been recognised by the University of London for the purposes of its B.Sc. degree in engineering (mining). Negotiations are now in progress for holding the examinations of the University, both Intermediate and Final, for that degree at the Indian School of Mines.

Approximately 20 students have been enrolled annually during the quinquennium : in regulating the admissions regard is had to the prospects of employment for students who complete the course. The number of students who have obtained the Certificate and the Diploma of the School is given in the table below.

TABLE CI.

Number of successful candidates in the Certificate and Diploma examinations of the Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad.

—	1932.	1933.	1934.	1935.	1936.	Total.
Certificate in Coal Mining ..	10	7	6	9	6	38
Certificate in Metal Mining ..	1	2	3	1	3	10
Certificate in Geology ..	1	3	2	4	3	13
Diploma in Mining Engineering ..	14	8	10	6	5	43
Diploma in Geology ..	5	1	3	1	2	12
Total ..	31	21	21	21	19	116

(vii) *Colleges of Commerce.*

22. The number and enrolment of Colleges and University Departments of Commerce are given in the table below.

TABLE CII.

Colleges and University Departments of Commerce, 1936-37.

Province.	Institutions.	Number of students.		Expenditure.			Total.
		1931-32	1936-37.	Govern- ment. Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
Bombay ..	Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics,	314	415	}	85,592	38,852	1,24,444
	Hargovandas Lakhmichand College of Commerce, Ahmedabad.		95				
Bengal {	Caleutta University ..	150	295	} Separate figures not available.
	Dacca University ..	24	77				
United Provinces.	Allahabad University ..	56	61	} Separate figures not available.
	Lucknow University ..	55	67				
Punjab ..	Hailey College of Commerce, Lahore.	125	133	42,000	16,704	..	58,704
Delhi ..	College of Commerce (Delhi University).	84	193	Separate figures not available.			..
	Total ..	808	1,330

As stated in the last Review, the pioneer in this form of education is the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay. This College was started in 1913, with the main object of supplying the growing needs not only of that province but of India generally for young men specially trained for commercial occupations. During the quinquennium under review, the constitution of the Advisory Board of the College was revised twice—once in 1933, and again in 1936. The Board as now constituted, being fully representative of all the important commercial interests in the city of Bombay, renders valuable service in advising Government on questions relating to the College and in enabling the institution to maintain close contact with the practical requirements of commerce and industry.

As regards the prospects of employment of commerce graduates, the Principal reports: "I am glad to say that a fair number of them continue to get suitable employments. Of course, they are not now as fortunate as those who passed out of the College some ten years ago. Day by day, owing to the unemployment among educated classes and trade depression, the problem of service is becoming more and more difficult, and graduates of the College are no exception to this state of affairs. However, the number of old students of the College who remain without employment for a considerable time is comparatively small. The experience is that those who do well at the B.Com. Examination or who have good business connections find no great difficulty in getting fixed up in banks, mills or some other commercial concerns. Among those who have to wait for a long time are persons who are of very ordinary calibre and some who do not like the idea of going away from their homes. Owing to the fact that the young men after leaving the College do not keep themselves in touch with it, it is sometimes difficult to inform them of the vacancies for their employment. With a view to overcoming this difficulty, it is proposed to maintain a register of both employed and unemployed graduates of the College."¹

In the Bombay presidency a new College of Commerce—the Hargovandas Lakhmichand College of Commerce—was opened at Ahmedabad in June 1936 and was affiliated to the University of Bombay in courses of instruction for (a) the Intermediate Commerce Examination and (b) the B. Com. Examination. An Advisory Board consisting of leading businessmen of Ahmedabad has been formed with the object of advising the Governing Body of the Ahmedabad Education Society, which maintains the College, on questions of policy, organization, buildings and equipment. Efforts have also been made to keep the work of the College in full harmony with the practical requirements of commerce and industry. Although 1936-37 was the first year in the life of the College, there were 80 students in the Intermediate Commerce Class and 15 in the Junior B. Com. class.

In Bengal, facilities for advanced commercial education were provided, as before, by the two Universities of Calcutta and Dacca and the Commerce

¹ *Bombay*, page 50.

Department of Vidyasagar College, Calcutta. In the United Provinces, similar facilities were provided by the Allahabad and Lucknow Universities.

The Hailey College of Commerce, Lahore, is managed, as before, by a Committee consisting of representatives not only of academic interests but also of the banking and commercial community. A welcome feature of the quinquennium is the fact that the College has been able to attract students from among the sons of well-to-do businessmen in larger numbers than hitherto. Since 1935, practical training has been made compulsory for all students, who have now to work in a business house or a Government office for two months—June and July.

The Commercial College, Delhi, was recognised as a degree college in 1932, authorized to teach English and Commerce (Higher Accountancy or Banking group) with Economics, Mathematics or History as the third subject.

(viii) Statistical training.

23. Mention may be made here of the Indian Statistical Institute, Calcutta, which was founded in 1931, with the object of promoting the study of statistics, both pure and applied, and of allied subjects. The courses of training are primarily intended for Government and University officers and workers in research and educational institutions, who desire to acquire a working knowledge of modern statistical methods with particular reference to their own special subjects. Arrangements are also made for higher studies and advanced work in statistics for qualified workers. Research students who bring their own materials are given the necessary guidance as well as full facilities for work in the Institute. The normal course is of one year's duration. Such full courses are, however, not always required by workers interested in particular branches and shorter courses of three months and one month are arranged for such persons.

A scheme of examination for the award of diplomas and certificates for proficiency in statistics, which had been under the consideration of the Institute for some time, received formal sanction in April 1936. In order to maintain adequate scientific standards, it has been decided that at least one examiner and one moderator in each examination should be appointed from among well-known statisticians outside India.

(ix) Teaching.

24. This section deals with Colleges and Departments of Universities for training men teachers for service in English and anglo-vernacular secondary schools. The provision made for training teachers in vernacular schools has been discussed in Chapter IV, and that for women teachers of all kinds in Chapter VI of this Review.

The statistics regarding the training colleges for men are given in the tables below.

TABLE III.

Training Colleges for Men.

Province.	1931-32.			1936-37.		
	No. of institutions.	No. of Students.	No. of female students included in the previous column.	No. of institutions.	No. of Students.	No. of female students included in the previous column.
Madras	3	280	..	2	332	..
Bombay	1	76	10	1	101	21
Bengal	2	144	..	3	190	..
United Provinces	3	282(a)	4	4	302(b)	29
Punjab	2	175	7	2	162	..
Burma	91(c)	42	..	141(c)	91
Bihar	2	83	..	1	62	..
Central Provinces and Berar.	1	131	8	1	127	6
Assam
North-West Frontier Province	1	41
Sind
Orissa	1	21	..
British India ..	15	1,425	71	15	1,488	147
1926-27 ..	15	1,142	17
1921-22 ..	17	1,190	10
1916-17 ..	12	716	7
1911-13 ..	10	522	5
1906-07 ..	5	332	6
1901-02 ..	5	190	11

(a) Includes 101 students and (b) 115 students reading at Benares and Aligarh University Departments.

(c) Boarding at the University Department.

TABLE CIV.

Expenditure on Training Colleges for Men.

Province.	1931-32.					1936-37.				
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras ..	1,56,537	276	2,685	17,932	1,77,430	1,49,970	..	3,539	16,347	1,69,856
Bombay ..	70,394	..	2,445	10	72,849	64,095	..	2,400	91	66,586
Bengal ..	1,64,703	..	925	242	1,65,870	1,31,258	44	1,31,302
United Provinces*	1,41,042	1,41,042	1,58,551	..	2,475	2,463	1,63,489
Punjab ..	1,29,862	..	18,248	5,032	1,54,042	1,21,633	..	25,854	10,730	1,58,217
Burma*..
Bihar ..	67,228	120	67,348	46,655	..	1,112	234	48,001
Central Provinces and Berar.	1,30,466	..	631	4,464	1,44,611	88,317	..	1,855	3,298	93,470
Assam
North-West Frontier Province.	18,872	18,872
Sind
Orissa (a)	13,027	13,027
British India ..	8,88,104	276	24,984	28,700	9,42,064	7,73,506	..	37,235	33,207	8,43,948
India	1926-27	9,26,038	1,816	5,496	24,022	9,57,372
	1921-22	9,38,684	7,630	2,209	34,241	9,82,814
	1916-17	5,01,822	3,891	5,846	14,621	5,26,980
	1911-12	2,98,243	875	3,142	9,279	3,11,539
	1906-07	1,98,227	213	2,905	8,942	2,10,287
	1901-02	88,558	403	550	843	90,354

* This table does not include expenditure on University Departments at Benares, Aligarh and Rangoon, for which separate figures are not available.

(a) In 1931-32, Orissa formed part of Bihar.

25. The main developments are as follows:—

In Madras, from 1932-33, all the L. T. students in the Teachers' College, Saidapet, are obliged to take a subject for subsidiary training, i.e., training on a level lower than that of their main optional subject. The purpose of this is to enable them to enlarge their outlook by acquiring some acquaintance with the comparative study of methods and to equip them to handle the additional subjects of the lower secondary and primary courses of study.

The Government Training College, Rajahmundry, was visited by the Inspection Committee of the Andhra University in January 1933, and on their recommendation, permanent affiliation of the College to the University was granted with retrospective effect from July 1932. To enhance the value of the B. Ed. Examination, a practical test in the methods of teaching English and special subjects was introduced by the University from 1933-34.

In Bombay, the Secondary Training College was reorganized at the beginning of the quinquennium. The scheme involved an increase in the number of students from 60 to 100, a strengthening of the staff and an increase in the grants for library and equipment. The regulations governing the Secondary Teachers' Certificate Examination were also revised in 1935. The chief result of the new regulations has been to encourage a number of high schools to open training classes for fresh graduates and matriculates, which can be recognized by Government. It is hoped that the new regulations will raise the standard of the examination.

In Bengal, the David Hare Training College, Calcutta, and the Teachers' Training College, Dacca, "have been passing through an ordeal.....The normal expenditure on the two colleges was cut down nearly by Rs. 31,500 a year with effect from 1933-34."¹ The Bengal Report states that in the case of the David Hare Training College, "all the grants were ruthlessly cut down—the library grant by 40 per cent. and the apparatus grant by 30 per cent. and this adversely affected the efficiency of work as the grants were fixed originally on a very low scale."²

In this province the percentage of trained graduate teachers to the total number of teachers in the high schools is only 7.2 per cent. and one high school has only 0.9 trained graduate teachers. This is mainly due to the inadequacy of the provision for the training of teachers. The pressure for admission to the training colleges increased, both at Dacca and Calcutta, and more than 500 applicants every year applied for admission, although normally only 80 could be taken at Dacca and 60 at Calcutta.

With a view to offering facilities to teachers for training and to promote the systematic study of the science and art of education, the University of Calcutta opened a Teachers' Training Department in July 1935. At present the course extends over three months. It is reported that "the short courses of training are obviously purely temporary measures"³ as "it cannot be seriously contended that a three months' course is enough to give satisfactory training; but even a three months' course is better than nothing."³

In the United Provinces, there are three Government Training colleges; one at Allahabad is for graduate teachers and the other two at Lucknow and Agra are for undergraduate teachers. There are also two training colleges attached to the Benares Hindu University and the Aligarh Muslim University which train for a B. T. degree. In 1932, a new training college—the Lucknow Christian Training College—was opened as a result of the recommendations of the Lindsay Commission on Christian education in India.

¹ Bengal, page 136.

² Bengal, page 138.

³ Bengal, page 137.

In the Government Training College, Allahabad, admissions were made until 1934 by the Principal on the recommendations of the circle inspectors of schools. Since 1935 admissions have been regulated by a committee appointed by Government, consisting of the Deputy Director of Public Instruction, a member nominated by Government and the Principal. This Committee considers all applications with the recommendations of the circle inspectors and selects 65 candidates, while the Director of Public Instruction nominates 5 more. Thus the total admissions number 70. The academic qualifications of those admitted continue to improve and a scheme of tutorial groups which was started in 1935-36 promises well.

The Training College attached to the Benares Hindu University provides facilities for training about 70 teachers a year, one-third recruited from Indian States and the rest from the different provinces. In the Training College attached to the Aligarh Muslim University also, students are drawn from various provinces all over India and some are deputed by the Indian States, but it is stated that half the number taken belongs to the United Provinces. 45 students are admitted annually from applications varying between 300 and 400.

In the Government Training College, Agra, intermediate passed students formerly took a one-year course instead of a two-year course which was intended for the candidates who had passed only the High School examination. In 1935, a common course of two years was introduced for all, with the result that a system of group and tutorial work has now become feasible.

In the Government Training College, Lucknow, an addition of 21 single rooms was made to the hostel and various other improvements were carried out. The main object of the training is to turn out men capable of taking all class subjects and specialization is discouraged.

In the Punjab, the qualifications of candidates admitted to the Central Training College, Lahore, have improved and more attention has been devoted to teaching technique and experimental work, and to giving the pupil teachers a right attitude towards life and their vocation. Special attention has also been paid to the admission as far as possible of candidates possessing high academic qualifications, and this has helped in improving the quality of the trained teachers.

In Burma, the University Teachers' Training College, which was started in 1931, provides a post-graduate course leading to the B. Ed. degree and a course for under-graduates leading to the University Trained Teachers' Certificate, each course being of two years' duration. It gives a sound training on modern lines in literary subjects, in drawing and painting and in physical education. A third year's course has now been arranged for students who wish to specialize in physical education on completion of the ordinary course.

In Bihar, there is now only one training college, viz., the Patna Training College. The Cuttack Training College, owing to the separation of Orissa on the 1st April 1936, was transferred to the new province. In 1934-35 the University and Government in Bihar sanctioned the necessary regulations to replace the degree of Bachelor of Education by a new degree of Master of Education. The Principal remarks that there is a decided preference for

Masters of Education as compared with Diplomates in Education in the matter of employment of teachers in Government as well as non-Government institutions. It is gratifying to note that school authorities all over the province are availing themselves more and more freely of the services of the college when new appointments have to be made.

In the Central Provinces, the Spence Training College, Jubbulpore, prepared students for the B. T. degree of the Nagpur University and for the Trained Teachers' Certificate examination. The Trained Teachers' Certificate classes were affiliated to the Nagpur University in July 1934 and now read for the Diploma in Teaching. The whole College now takes examinations conducted by the University both for the B. T. degree and the Diploma in Teaching. An extra subject, the history of education, has been added to the B. T. syllabus.

In Assam, the chief event of the quinquennium in regard to the training of teachers was the opening of classes for the B. T. degree in St. Edmund's College, Shillong. The results of the first year were excellent, six students having obtained first class degrees, and the reputation of the College has attracted 60 students this year.

In Orissa, the strength of the Cuttack Training College was 21 in 1936-37. It is reported that the need both for an increase in the number of places and for a strengthening of the staff was clearly felt during the year but no orders were passed.

In the North-West Frontier Province, the Training College at Peshawar was really a training school containing senior vernacular and junior vernacular classes and it is now classified as a training school. Candidates for training as Anglo-vernacular teachers are sent to the Central Training College, Lahore.

In Sind, there is no training college for secondary teachers, although the need for such an institution is keenly felt. At present, 9 places are reserved for Sindhis at the Government Secondary Training College, Bombay, for which the Sind Government pay an annual subsidy of Rs. 5,400 to the Bombay Government.

In Delhi also, no local provision for the training of Anglo-vernacular teachers exists. Special arrangements have, however, been made by the local Administration with the Punjab Government for Delhi candidates to be trained at the Central Training College, Lahore. Two seats for Delhi students are reserved annually for admission to the B. T. or S. A. V. class at this college and the Delhi Administration pays the *per capita* cost for the training of their students. Three male candidates from Delhi are also sent every year for training to the Anglo-Vernacular Teachers' Training Class, Ajmer.

In Ajmer-Merwara, an Anglo-Vernacular Teachers' Training Class is attached to the Government Normal School, Ajmer. Formerly, students from this Class appear for the C. T. Examination of the United Provinces. In 1937, the Class was affiliated to the Board of High School and Intermediate Education, Rajputana (including Ajmer-Merwara), Central India and Gwalior, which now conducts an examination at the conclusion of a year's course, the minimum qualification for admission being a pass at the Intermediate Examination.

(x) Civil Aviation.

26. During the quinquennium, the medium for training Indians in civil aviation in India was the flying clubs of which there were 8 in 1932 and 9 at the end of 1936. These clubs were primarily organized and equipped to train candidates for the private pilot's (A) licence, but from 1932 efforts have been made by the clubs to increase the scope of their training, until it is now possible to obtain training for the commercial pilot's licence at some of the clubs and for the "A" and "C" ground engineers' licences. Of the 45 licensed ground engineers, 40 have secured employment and of the 30 licensed commercial Indian pilots 19 are employed.

In 1935, the Aeronautical Training Centre of India was established as a private company and 50 students were enrolled. This number has since been increased to 80. This Centre is well equipped for instruction in aircraft engineering and wireless telegraphy. Flying instruction has been given in collaboration with the Delhi Flying Club. The Centre meets a need and makes it possible for Indians to receive a sound basic training in aviation without having to go abroad.

The flying clubs in British India are subsidized by Government, which has also granted financial assistance from time to time to promising candidates in order to enable them to obtain advanced training in civil aviation. In 1932, one "B" licence pilot was sent to England for training as a pilot instructor. In 1933, five ground engineers trained by the flying clubs in India were sent to England for advanced training and one research student was also granted financial assistance to develop his natural bent for design work and for the purpose of investigating a patented design. In 1934, four Indians were sent to England—two for training in aircraft inspection work and two for training in aerodrome control work. In 1935, three candidates were selected for training in India in wireless telegraphy and one 'B' pilot was sent to England for further training as First Officer with a view to employment in Indian Trans-Continental Airways, Limited. In 1936, four Indians with engineering experience were selected for training in India in wireless telegraphy and two Indian 'B' licence pilots for training as pilot instructors at certain flying clubs in India, and one 'B' pilot was sent to England for further training as a First Officer for employment in Indian Trans-Continental Airways, Limited. From 1934, scholarships have been granted by private bodies and certain Indian States also to assist individuals to study aviation.

: (xi) Seamanship.

27. Mention was made in the last Review of the scheme formulated by the Government of India for providing facilities for the training of Indians as Marine Engineers and of the award, in pursuance of that scheme, of nine-scholarships to Indian boys who were sent to the United Kingdom for acquiring training in Marine Engineering. Owing to financial and other considerations the Government of India abandoned this scheme and have sanctioned in its place a scheme which provides for the requisite practical training in India comparable in standard to that obtainable in the United Kingdom and also for an appreciably greater output of trained engineers at much the same

cost. Under the new scheme, which has been brought into operation from January 1935, the Indian Mercantile Marine Training Ship "Dufferin" has been reorganized to provide preliminary training in Marine Engineering and 50 cadets are annually admitted to the Ship, 25 of whom are trained for the Executive Branch and 25 for the Engineering Branch. The Government of India have further sanctioned the grant of 15 scholarships annually, each of the value of Rs. 50 per mensem, for the Engineering cadets passing out of the "Dufferin" to assist them financially during their 'workshop' service. They have also sanctioned the payment of fees of these cadets for attending evening classes at the Technical Schools for theoretical instruction during that period.

(xii) Indian Military Academy, Dehra Dun.

28. This is an Indian training institution for those who desire to obtain commissions as Indian commissioned officers in His Majesty's Indian Land Forces. The essential qualifications required of candidates for this Academy are a good general education, personality, powers of leadership, physical fitness and a keenness for sport. The educational standard is the Indian Army Special Certificate of Education, which in turn, necessitates a high standard in English. The course of instruction extends over two and a half years.

There are 30 vacancies each half year at the Academy for commissions in the Indian Land Forces, which are allotted as follows :—15 by open competition and 15 to Indian Army cadets. In addition 10 vacancies are allotted to Indian States for the training of prospective officers for the State forces.

Since the Academy was opened in 1932, 396 candidates have been admitted. Of these 161 were competitive candidates, 177 Indian Army candidates and 58 Indian States Forces candidates. The total number of candidates who have been commissioned in His Majesty's Indian Land Forces is 124.

CHAPTER VIII.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING.

As stated in the last Review, there are many institutions in India which provide for both vocational and professional training and classification is difficult in view of their widely differing activities. This chapter deals with the types of instruction which can generally be termed vocational.

(i) *Schools of Art.*

2. The tables below give the main statistics relating to schools of Art. As stated in the last Review, the name given to these institutions is often misleading as several institutions classified as "schools of Art" are really craft schools and provide very little teaching in the fine arts.

TABLE CV.

Schools of Art.

Province.	1932		1937.		1937.			Total expenditure.	
	No. of institutions.	Enrolment.	No. of institutions.	Enrolment.	Expenditure met from				
					Government and Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.		
Madras	4	614	3	350	42,121	345	11,722	54,188	
Bombay	3	743	3	692	80,751	41,422	2,881	1,25,054	
Bengal	5	519	5	527	49,349	18,319	8,365	76,033	
United Provinces	2	258	2	344	57,749	4,064	3,588	65,401	
Punjab	1	264	1	193	58,297	58,297	
Burma	1	56	1	45	200	200	
Total ..	16	2,454	15	2,151	2,88,467	64,160	26,656	3,79,173	

TABLE CVI.

Government Schools of Art.

Institutions.	Pupils in		1937.			Total expenditure.
			Expenditure met from			
	1932.	1937.	Government and Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
1. School of Arts and crafts, Madras.	265	244	Rs. 39,979	Rs. 233	Rs. 5,376	Rs. 45,588
2. Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay.	432	518	79,478	41,091	930	1,21,499(a)
3. The Drawing and Design Classes, Ahmedabad.	26	30	(b)	90	..	90
4. The Government School of Art, Calcutta.	237	285	31,626	13,061	..	44,687
5. The Government School of Arts and Crafts, Lucknow.	221	274	52,968	4,064	..	57,032
6. The Mayo School of Arts, Lahore.	303	193	58,297	58,297
Total	..	1,458	1,544	262,348	58,539	6,306
						3,27,193

(a) Includes expenditure on Reay Art Workshops, Bombay.

(b) The Drawing and Design Classes are attached to the R. C. High School, Ahmedabad, and maintained by Government. Separate figures for expenditure are not available.

3. The number of Schools of Art has fallen from 16 in 1932 to 15 in 1937 and their enrolment from 2,454 to 2,151. Six of these are Government institutions in Madras, Bombay, Ahmedabad, Calcutta, Lucknow and Lahore ; 5 are aided institutions ; 2 are unaided ; and 2 are maintained by local bodies.

In Madras, the Government School of Arts and Crafts has made considerable progress during the quinquennium in various directions, especially in the fine arts section, which has attracted students from other provinces and from Indian States. The crafts section has also continued to work satisfactorily. A separate section for enamelling work on gold, silver and other metals has been started, the course extending over two years. The number of pupils in the school has fallen from 265 in 1932 to 244 in 1937. This is probably due to restrictions having been imposed on admissions and to limitations in the maximum enrolment of each class, as mentioned in the last Review.

In Bombay the Thomas Committee recommended the abolition of the Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy School of Art with the exception of its architectural section, which was to be removed elsewhere. The Government of Bombay did not, however, accept this recommendation and decided that the School should continue on the present lines and that no reduction in the general scope of its activities should be made. In 1935-36 a new section was started in the School for training in commercial art in all its branches. This section has proved very popular as it is serving the needs of many students who apply art as a direct means of gaining a livelihood. It is also encouraging to note that during the quinquennium there has been a great increase in the number of women students, their number being 83 in 1936-37 as against 55 in 1932-33. The total number of students on the rolls of the drawing and painting, modelling, architecture and commercial art sections of the School was 518 in 1937 as against 432 in 1932.

The Drawing and Design Classes attached to the R. C. High School, Ahmedabad, continued to do useful work. Fret-work was introduced in 1936-37.

In Bombay, there are also 8 special classes for instruction in music both vocal and instrumental with 1,169 pupils.

In Bengal, the number of art schools is five as in the previous quinquennium. Of these, the Government School of Art, Calcutta, is the most important art school in the province. The main subjects taught are Indian painting, European art, the decorative arts, commercial art, wood-engraving, lithography, draftsmanship, clay-modelling, etc. The course extends over five or six years and is divided into an elementary and an advanced stage. The enrolment in the school rose from 237 in 1932 to 285 in 1937. The work of the staff and students was exhibited at Burlington House, London, in 1935 and excited considerable appreciation. The school also trains drawing masters for educational institutions.

There are also 7 special music schools in Bengal of which the best known are the Sangit Vidyalaya and Sangit Sangha of Calcutta, where vocal and instrumental music is taught, mostly to girls.

In the United Provinces, the Government School of Arts and Crafts Lucknow, continues to provide a five-year course in fine art, drawing for reproduction, architectural design, art printing, both litho and process, goldsmith's work, silversmith's work, wood carving and decorative iron work. The qualifications required for admission have been appreciably raised. There are in addition special short courses for artisans. The school also provides a two-year course for teachers. These must have passed the High School Examination and from them are recruited the teachers of drawing in anglo-vernacular schools. The total enrolment of the school has risen from 221 in 1932 to 274 in 1937.

The Marris School of Hindustani Music, Allahabad, which was established in 1926, has done much to raise the standard of music in the province. The number of students has grown from 242 at the beginning to 311 at the close of the quinquennium. Of these half come from the United Provinces and the rest from outside. Twenty per cent. are women. The staff has also been increased. Government contributes half the expenditure up to Rs. 8,000 and also the rent, viz., Rs. 3,600, of the old Council Chamber which is used for this institution. There are two courses; a three years' intermediate course and a five-years' degree course in music. There is also a sixth year or post-graduate course.

In the Punjab, the Mayo School of Arts, Lahore, maintained its reputation throughout the quinquennium as the premier art institution of the province. The total number of students on the roll has decreased from 303 in 1932 to 193 in 1937. This decrease is due to the various causes, e.g., (i) abolition of the book-binding department; (ii) separation of the Sanitary Inspector's Class in Drawing; (iii) closing of one of the two Drawing Training Classes; (iv) opening of new special institutions for training in Cabinet making and the Smithy Class; viz., the metal works at Ambala and Sialkot and the wood working at Jullundur. The cabinet work, commercial painting and fine art classes in the Mayo School continued to be very popular.

4. India has a long tradition of artistic achievement and these schools of art are doing useful work in maintaining this tradition. There is, however, much room both for expansion and for general improvement in technique. A recent writer on India has said that "dress, furniture, architecture, the fine arts and music, give ample scope for the expression and the enjoyment of beauty, and in this sphere India has much to give as well as to learn."¹

(ii) Technical, Craft and Industrial Schools.

5. During the quinquennium under review, the total number of schools of these types has increased from 483 to 536 and the number of pupils reading

¹ F. S. Marvin : India and the West, page 123.

in them from 26,711 to 30,549. The provincial figures regarding these institutions and their enrolment as well as their expenditure are given in the tables below.

TABLE CVII.

Number and enrolment of Technical, craft and Industrial Schools.

Province.	Number of institutions		Increase (+) or decrease (-).	Number of pupils.		Increase (+) or decrease (-).
	1932.	1937.		1932.	1937.	
Madras	73	84	+11	5,738	7,454	+1,716
Bombay	44	(a) 59	(a)	2,895	(a) 3,620	(a)
Bengal	144	153	+9	6,315	6,996	+681
United Provinces ..	107	95	-12	3,933	3,833	-100
Punjab	43	54	+11	4,516	3,753	-763
Burma	2	1	-1	231	39	-192
Bihar	48	(a) 39	(a)	2,079	(a) 2,327	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar.	2	13	+11	149	794	+645
Assam	15	14	-1	374	639	+265
North-West Frontier Province.
Sind	(a)	5	(a)	(a)	238	(a)
Orissa	(a)	10	(a)	(a)	234	(a)
Coorg	1	1	..	12	6	-6
Delhi	2	4	+2	336	476	+140
Ajmer-Merwara ..	1	1	..	102	62	-40
Baluchistan
Bangalore	1	2	+1	31	67	+36
Other Administered Areas.	..	1	+1	..	10	+10
British India ..	483	536	+53	26,711	30,548	+3,837

(a) In 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay and Orissa of Bihar, while in 1936-37 they were constituted into separate provinces. Hence figures for 1932 and 1937 are not strictly comparable for these four provinces.

TABLE CVIII.

Expenditure on Technical, Craft and Industrial Schools, 1936-37.

Province.	Expenditure met from				Total ex- penditure.
	Govern- ment. Funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	3,55,687	3,671	54,806	6,53,230	10,67,394
Bombay	2,12,031	83,058	1,93,379	1,31,058	6,19,516
Bengal	3,71,222	1,41,751	49,910	2,42,692	8,05,578
United Provinces	6,58,489	44,571	12,406	1,66,061	8,81,527
Punjab	3,79,477	4,587	26,805	50,915	4,61,784
Burma	24,155	21,155
Bihar	3,54,425	793	11,842	1,46,813	5,13,873
Central Provinces and Berar	94,112	320	2,343	30,170	1,26,945
Assam	58,322	4,499	1,932	14,693	79,446
North-West Frontier Province
Sind	4,283	7,027	1,257	9,251	21,818
Orissa	16,696	..	2,959	27,733	47,388
Coorg	2,289	181	2,470
Delhi	22,653	765	496	3,271	27,185
Ajmer-Merwara	4,000	4,000
Balochistan
Bangalore	4,057	1,216	5,273
Other Administered Areas	3,135	682	3,817
British India	25,57,918	2,91,045	3,61,270	14,81,966	46,92,199

6. Mention may first be made of those technical institutions which provide a specialized training in some particular branch of industry and demand as a condition of admission a fairly high standard of general education.

7. In the Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Cawnpore, the leather chemistry section and the teaching side of the general research section were abolished in 1932 as a result of the recommendations of the second Mackenzie

Committee. Of the remaining two sections—Sugar and Oil, the former became very popular owing to the phenomenal development of the sugar industry and attracted a very good type of student. Its all-India importance led to its being handed over to the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research in 1936 and it has become the Imperial Institute of Sugar Technology. The sugar technological course has been extended to three years and a new two years' course in sugar engineering has been added to the existing courses. A scheme was worked out in 1932 for developing the Oil Section of the Institute into an all-India Institute of Oil Technology but this has not materialized. The Imperial Council of Agricultural Research is making a grant to the Institute on a yearly basis. The expenditure on the Institute fell from Rs. 1,42,252 in 1932 to Rs. 1,03,090 in 1936-37, while its enrolment has risen from 23 to 104. This increase is due to the rise in enrolment in the Sugar Section and also to the admission of some students for short course training in the Oil Section. Of 188 students who passed out during the last five years, 168 are reported to have secured employment.

8. The Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay continued to provide regular courses of instruction covering a period of four years in mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, textile manufactures, technical and applied chemistry, and sanitary engineering and plumbing. A new textile workshop was opened in 1934. The number of students in 1936-37 was 539 as against 559 in 1931-32. Students from this Institute sit for the City and Guilds of London Institute Technological Examinations.

In addition to the regular courses of instruction, the Institute provides apprentice classes for artisans. In 1934-35, in view of the development of wireless and radio communications, evening classes extending over a period of $4\frac{1}{2}$ months for the training of students in the elementary principles of radio communication and maintenance and repairs of radio instruments were organized in the Institute. All these classes have been well attended.

The total expenditure of the Institute in 1936-37 was Rs. 2,58,716. A grant-in-aid of Rs. 1,25,000 was received from the Department of Industries.

The R. C. Technical Institute, Ahmedabad, which is maintained by the Government of Bombay, provides instruction covering a period of three years in cotton spinning, cotton weaving, and mechanical engineering. In 1935-36, an additional subject, "steam and heat engines", was introduced in the III year Textile Course. A wiremen's class was also organized in the Institute in 1936 to train boys to take the II Class certificate of competency for electric wiremen. There were 117 pupils in the Institute in 1936-37 as compared with 132 in 1931-32.

9. The Jamshedpur Technical Institute, which was established in 1921 by the Tata Iron and Steel Company, was remodelled during the period under review. In 1932, a five-year course, called the "C" class apprenticeship course, was introduced in order to train young men for junior mechanical posts in the Company. The minimum educational qualification for admission to this class is a pass in the middle school certificate examination (with English); M5ECGI

and recruitment is made generally from the sons and wards of employees of the Company, the successful apprentices being given permanent posts under the Company. Under a revised scheme introduced in 1935, "A" class apprentices are recruited from candidates possessing an Honours or first class degree or diploma in mechanical or electrical engineering or in metallurgy of a recognised institution and "B" class apprentices are taken from candidates possessing ordinary degrees in the same subjects. The course extends over two years, and, on its completion, the successful apprentices are appointed to superior posts under the Company.

10. In the Government School of Technology, Madras, several improvements were effected during the quinquennium under report. The standard of instruction in mechanical and electrical engineering was raised and L. M. E. and L. E. diplomas are now awarded to those who successfully complete their courses of training. The mechanical and electrical workshops and laboratory were also strengthened by additional equipment. Three separate printing courses were organized, one for compositors and proof-readers, one for machine-minders and a third, a diploma course, for those who complete the first two courses. The School continued to be a centre for the examinations of the London City and Guilds Institute.

The Government Textile Institute, Madras, continued to provide instruction in three courses, namely, the Supervisors' course, the Artisans' course and the Cotton-power Spinning course for mill apprentices, as well as special courses in certain subjects such as knitting. In order to supplement the training afforded to pupils in this Institute and to fit them better for subsequent employment, arrangements have been made with the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills, Limited, Madras, that they should accept for a three years' course of training in their mills, three textile apprentices every year, the selection being restricted to those who have passed the Supervisors' course in the Institute. With a view to affording facilities for the training of suitable candidates to act as instructors in textile schools, a pupil-teacher's course extending over a year was introduced in 1936-37. Selection for the course is made from among those who have successfully undergone the Supervisors' Course.

The Government Industrial School, Madura, caters for the needs of the southern districts of the Presidency and provides instruction in mechanical and wood-working trades extending over five years. With a view to meeting the demand for trained electricians and wiremen consequent on the development of electric supply in the southern districts, a two years' course for electricians was started in July 1936.

11. In Bengal, the more important technical schools are the Calcutta Technical School, the Kanchrapara Technical School, the Kharagpur Technical School, and the Pahartali Technical School. The three latter institutions which are managed by the Eastern Bengal Railway, the Bengal Nagpur Railway and the Assam Bengal Railway respectively train apprentices for the

railway workshops while the Calcutta Technical School has arrangements for extensive courses of theoretical training, with laboratory practice, for apprentices in various engineering and other concerns in and around Calcutta.

12. In the Punjab, the Victoria Diamond Jubilee Technical Institute, Lahore, which was originally started with the object of attracting high-caste Hindu boys to industrial pursuits and of breaking down their prejudice against manual labour, completed 40 years of its useful existence. During the past decade it has turned out 322 mechanical and electrical engineers, 92 trained mechanics and 24 oil-engine men. Some necessary changes were made during the year 1936-37 in the staff of the Institute and many improvements were also effected in the workshops and laboratories.

The Government Technical School, Lahore, is also doing useful work. Applications for admission to its Electro-Mechanics Department have been numerous. The Die Press Sheet Metal Work and Die Making Departments also increased in popularity. The number of students decreased from 584 in 1931-32 to 104 in 1936-37. The decrease is due to the progressive elimination of classes under the old scheme and to a selective entry under the new scheme of training.

13. In Burma, the Government Technical Institute, Insein, provides training in Civil and mechanical engineering leading up to examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute. Most of the Students who completed their courses in 1937 promptly obtained employment. The Institute also maintains evening classes and the Motor Mechanics Class continues to attract large numbers.

14. In Bihar, the principal technical schools are the Ranchi Technical Institute, the Tirhut Technical Institute and the Jainalpur Technical Institute. An outstanding event, which occurred towards the close of the period was the appointment of the Unemployment Committee by Government. This Committee enquired into the technical and other qualifications required for the employment of young men in the industries of the province and made recommendations for providing them with facilities to acquire these qualifications where such facilities do not exist and for introducing an industrial bias into the education system. These recommendations are now under examination by the different departments, and their acceptance by Government is expected to ensure a substantial extension of facilities for technical and industrial education in the province.

15. Indian students also go abroad for technical and industrial education.

There are 220 Indian students receiving training in various branches of engineering and technology in the Universities and colleges in the United Kingdom and Eire. Arrangements are also made by the High Commissioner for India for placing Indian students in factories, works, etc., for practical training in these subjects. The reports on the work and progress of these students show that with very few exceptions they take full advantage of their opportunities and give satisfaction to the firms which accept them. The

exceptions are usually those students who have failed to appreciate the real nature and aim of the training on which they have embarked, or started specialized training at too early a stage. For some years, it has been the policy of the High Commissioner for India in placing contracts to give preference, other things being equal, to firms which are willing to provide training facilities for Indian students. It is reported that the number of students for whom training facilities have been obtained has increased in recent years.

16. Considerable progress is also noticeable in the institutions which may be termed "craft schools", i.e., schools which provide training in particular crafts.

In Bombay, the Department of Industries continued to help the hand-weaving industry by means of its peripatetic weaving schools and demonstrations. The Department maintained five weaving schools for *house-side* weavers, two weaving schools for agriculturists with a view to training them to take up hand weaving as a subsidiary occupation for supplementing their income, one cottage sizing set demonstration for teaching weavers improved methods for warping and sizing, nine cotton weaving demonstrations, one wool weaving demonstration, and one dyeing and printing demonstration. The Central Hand Weaving Institute maintained by the Department also continued its useful work of training boys in the technology of handloom weaving.

In Bengal, the weaving schools continue to be controlled by the Director of Industries. Of these the more important are the Government Weaving Institute, Serampore, and the Government Silk Weaving and Dyeing Institute, Berhampore. The former imparts training in all aspects of cotton textile technology and in handloom weaving, while the latter specializes in silk weaving.

Mention may also be made here of the Bengal Tanning Institute. It has fully justified its existence and it is hoped that before long its influence on the trade will bring the standard of the leather industry up to that of Western countries. It had an enrolment of 10 pupils and many of its old students have started small tanneries with success. Research work is encouraged.

There are also a number of institutions in Bengal which provide training in carpentry, blacksmithy, cane work, pottery, etc.

In the United Provinces, the textile and weaving group consisting of 30 schools is the most important. Among these, the Government Textile School, Cawnpore, the Government School of Dyeing and Printing, Cawnpore, the Government Central Weaving Institute, Benares, and the Government Weaving and the Cloth Printing School, Bijnorshahr, are well known. Considerable additions have been made to the equipment of the Government Textile School, Cawnpore. The Government School of Dyeing and Printing, Cawnpore, has been instrumental in establishing fast dyeing and aerograph printing. The Central Weaving Institute, Benares, is reported to have introduced several important appliances and labour saving devices.

There are also 12 carpentry schools, 5 leather working schools, and other institutes for craft teaching including metal working and wood working schools, etc.

In the Punjab, the Government Hosiery Institute, Ludhiana, continued to take the lead in providing instruction in the use of modern machines and appliances and the up-to-date methods of hosiery manufacture. The number on the rolls stood at 43 in 1936-37. In the Government Tanning Institute, Jullundur, experiments were conducted with satisfactory results in the production of varnish leather, chamois leather, pigment finishing, glaze kid and white leather. At the close of the quinquennium there were 31 students in this institute. All round developments are reported in the Government Institute of Dyeing and Calico Printing, Shahdara, during the quinquennium under review. The curriculum of studies was revised and a new system of practical training for the final year class was introduced so as to afford the students an opportunity to handle work on commercial lines and to learn the system of costing. In 1936-37, 112 students were on the rolls of the Institute. Another Institute which showed good progress is the Government Central Weaving Institute, Anritsar. Its enrolment stood at 51 in 1936-37. Training in modern methods of finishing and dyeing, which was introduced a few years ago, has proved to be very successful.

In Burma, the Saunders Weaving Institute, Amarapura, trains students in the use of improved looms and appliances, provides advanced training for those who desire to become weaving masters and managers of weaving factories and gives technical advice and suggestions to the public for the improvement of the handloom industry. A revised and comprehensive syllabus covering all branches of weaving was introduced during the quinquennium and students are now trained strictly according to this syllabus.

In Bihar, an important change has been introduced in the working of the three Government handicraft institutes, viz., the Cottage Industries Institute at Gulzarbagh, the Silk Institute at Bhagalpur and the Wool-weaving Institute at Gaya, which is expected to help in improving the standard of teaching. The "Bihar Cottage Industries" started at Gulzarbagh and the "Government Wool Emporium" started at Gaya with the aid of grants from the Government of India have taken over most of the marketing work of these institutes so that they are now able to pay greater attention to teaching work than was possible before.

17. There are also a number of special schools, generally known as industrial schools.

In Madras, the number of industrial schools recognised by the department increased from 65 to 75, during the quinquennium. The number of pupils increased from 6,015 to 7,107. These schools continue to provide instruction in various trades with a view to enabling youths to earn a living as skilled workers on the completion of their courses of training.

In Bombay, the number of schools or industrial sections of schools under the control of the Committee of Direction for Technical Education, which was formed in 1913, was 58 in 1936-37. Apart from these schools, there are 21 schools or classes under the control of the education department, most of which are for girls or women and provide instruction in sewing, tailoring, embroidery, knitting, first-aid, fancy work, etc.

In Bengal, Government have continued to develop special industrial schools which are growing steadily in popularity. These institutions are graded so as to allow a boy to be drafted off for technical education at intermediate stages of the general educational scheme. They are roughly classified as (1) artisan classes intended for illiterate or primary school boys, (2) junior technical schools for boys who have passed the middle stage and (3) senior technical schools for matriculates or for those who have received a university education.

In the Punjab, while the number of industrial schools rose from 30 to 36 during the quinquennium, their enrolment fell from 4,429 to 1,159. The decrease is due to the stoppage of recruitment under the old scheme in the institutions under re-organization, progressive elimination of classes under the old scheme, the closure of the Government Industrial School, Sialkot, and the limited recruitment to the specialized schools under the new scheme. The work of reorganization of Government industrial schools and institutes to convert them into specialized trade schools with a view to the production of articles of utility proceeded actively during the period under review.

In the Central Provinces, there are three Government and seven aided industrial schools. The total number of pupils in all the schools at the end of 1936-37 was 487. It is reported that the demand for this type of education continues to be keen but new schemes for expansion have been held up on account of financial stringency.

In the North-West Frontier Province, an attempt to meet the demand for technical education was made in 1935 by opening industrial classes for the sons of artisans, consisting of a carpentry and a smithy class.

In Orissa, there are 10 schools classed as industrial schools with 234 pupils. One is managed by Government, 8 are aided and one is unaided.

In Delhi, the Government Industrial School continued to provide training in carpentry and smithy along with general education. The course leads to the Punjab Industrial Middle Examination, for which pupils sit after eight years' study in the school. The number of pupils fell from 271 in 1931-32 to 259 in 1936-37.

18. Recently there has been a general awakening in India to the necessity of providing vocational education on a wider scale. The impression that this type of education is necessarily on a lower plane than literary education is gradually, though slowly, disappearing. But in a country where industrial concerns are not yet highly developed, the problem of devising a widespread

system of vocational education is very difficult. For its success, it is essential that occupations should absorb the students who pass out of these schools. For this purpose an attempt should first be made to estimate the demand for skilled labour in each industry or group of industries in a given area. In this connection, the following remark made in the Burma Report may be quoted :—

"The mere provision of technical education without industrial expansion would accentuate the problem of unemployment rather than help to solve it".¹ At the same time the purely educational benefit to be derived from studies of a practical kind is being increasingly recognised and the expansion of technical education, not simply on the ground of its contribution to industrial development but also because it has a more stimulating effect on certain types of intelligence than a curriculum of the normal academic kind, demands sympathetic consideration.

(iii) Commercial Schools.

19. The table below gives the main statistics regarding commercial schools in British India.

TABLE CIX.

Schools of Commerce.

Year.	No. of institutions.	No. of pupils.	Expenditure met from—				Total expenditure.
			Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
1931-32	135	6,246	Rs. 1,35,620	Rs. 250	Rs. 2,60,879	Rs. 48,846	Rs. 4,45,595
1936-37	371	13,199	Rs. 89,202	Rs. 572	Rs. 3,52,271	Rs. 39,740	Rs. 4,81,785

There has been a considerable increase during the quinquennium both in the number of commercial schools and their enrolment. The number of schools rose from 135 to 371 and that of pupils from 6,246 to 13,199. This is mainly due to the opening of a large number of unaided commercial schools in Madras.

¹ Burma, page 19.

20. The following table gives the provincial statistics regarding commercial schools.

TABLE CX.

Number and enrolment of schools of Commerce.

Province.	Number of institutions		Number of pupils		Increase	
	1932.	1937.	(+) or (-)	1932.	1937.	(+/-)
Madras .. .	57	273	+2.6	1,142	7,345	+5,203
Bombay .. .	(a) 34	(a) 29	(a)	(a) 2,001	(a) 1,512	(a)
Bengal .. .	25	29	-3	1,181	1,627	+446
United Provinces	1	1	-	165	18	+18
Punjab .. .	10	12	+2	365	276	-209
Burma .. .	11	14	+3	326	613	+287
Bihar .. .	(a) 14	(a) 12	(a)	(a) 564	(a) 529	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar.
Assam .. .	1	1	-	10	23	+17
North-West Frontier Province.
Sind .. .	(a)	7	(a)	(a)	696	(a)
Orissa .. .	(a)	1	(a)	(a)	21	(a)
Coorg
Delhi .. .	1	1	-	(b) 237	(b) 65	-172
Ajmer-Merwara
Baluchistan
Bangalore .. .	1	.. .	-1	19	.. .	-19
Other Administered Areas.
British India .. .	135	371	+236	0,216	13,109	+6,933

(a) While in 1931-32 Sind was included in Bombay and Orissa in Bihar, they were constituted into separate provinces in 1936-37. Hence no comparison has been made.

(b) The figures for 1932 and 1937 are not strictly comparable. While the figures for 1932 include students reading in commercial classes attached to 8 high schools, those for 1937 exclude students reading in such classes which were attached to only one high school in 1937. The figures for these classes in 1937 are not available.

In Madras, the quinquennium began with the abolition of the Government Schools of Commerce at Vizagapatam and Calicut from the 1st July 1932, and of the Government Institute of Commerce, Madras, from the 1st May 1933, as a measure of retrenchment. On the other hand, a very large number of unaided commercial schools was opened. This accounts for the increase in the number of commercial schools in Madras from 37 to 273.

In Bengal, the number of commercial schools fell from 25 in 1932 to 20 in 1937; one of these, the Government Commercial School, Calcutta, is managed by Government. The syllabus of this Institute was recast and brought up to date last year. The most noteworthy feature of the new syllabus is the inclusion of economics as a subject of study and of the increased emphasis laid on English. The Swan Retrenchment Committee had recommended the closing down of this Institute, but Government after due consideration decided not to accept the recommendation but to cut down expenditure as far as possible.

In Bombay, the rules for the Government Commercial Diploma and Certificate Examinations (formerly known as Government Commercial and Clerical Certificate Examination) were revised in 1932. Under the new rules two examinations were instituted, viz., (i) the Government Commercial Diploma Examination and (ii) the Government Commercial Certificate Examination. These examinations are now attracting more candidates. In April 1937, there were 109 and 151 candidates for the Diploma and Certificate Examinations respectively as against 40 and 1 in 1932.

In the Punjab, the number of recognised commercial classes attached to high schools and intermediate colleges increased from 9 to 11, but their enrolment went down from an average of 38 per class to 13 per class. The examination results also showed deterioration—passes falling from 49 per cent. to 36 per cent. The provincial report states that decreasing enrolment indicates that the classes have fallen into disfavour, owing largely to the fact that the pupils receiving instruction in them have found it increasingly difficult, due to all round financial and economic depression, to find suitable employment. The low initial qualifications of the candidates, coupled with a lack of practical training of a sufficiently high standard and for a suitably long period, have also militated against the chances of the success of these pupils in offices and business houses. It is, therefore, considered desirable both by inspectors and by the heads of these institutions that the period of training should be extended to two years and the admission qualifications raised to a pass in the intermediate examination. A Committee appointed by the Punjab Government in 1935 has recommended the overhauling of the present system of commercial education with a view to making it satisfy the clerical needs of Government and private offices. Its recommendations are engaging the serious attention of the department concerned.

In Delhi, while classes in commercial subjects preparing for the School Leaving Certificate Examination were attached to 8 high schools in 1932, they were attached to only one high school in 1937. It is reported that the closing down of these classes in different schools was due partly to financial stringency and partly to their inefficiency, but it was mainly due to the change in the

curriculum introduced by the Board of Secondary Education whereby students were required to pass in 5 subjects instead of 3 as in the previous quinquennium, and yet were debarred from admission to university courses.

The Government Commercial Institute, Delhi, however, continues to provide training for commercial careers and to train clerks for Government and mercantile offices. It is an institution for higher commercial and clerical training in which the vocational element predominates. The number of students receiving training in this Institute has risen from 10 in 1932 to 65 in 1937.

In Burma, equipment grants to commercial schools were suspended during the period of financial stringency. There has, however, been an increase both in the number of institutions and of the students enrolling in them.

In Sind, there are 7 commercial institutions which prepare candidates for the London Chamber of Commerce or the Government Commercial Diploma and Certificate examinations in book-keeping, shorthand, typewriting, commercial correspondence, commercial law, etc.

In Orissa, the Commercial School attached to the Cuttack Training School continues to provide instruction in typewriting, shorthand, and book-keeping. Its roll number was 21 in 1936-37 as against 26 in 1931-32.

The Commercial School attached to the Young Women's Christian Association in the Punjab was maintained with success throughout the quinquennium and as before trained young women in commercial courses. It is reported that successful candidates of this school have been able to procure posts on initial salaries ranging between Rs. 75 and Rs. 120 a month.

The Young Men's Christian Evening Continuation Classes in the Punjab have also continued to do commendable work in providing facilities for training in commercial education. During the first three years of the quinquennium, these classes were maintained by Government and Y.M.C.A. grants and tuition fees, but in 1935-36 the Government grant was discontinued. During 1936-37, however, the income from fees amounted to Rs. 13,630 which covered the total expenditure. The classes are thus self-supporting.

21. An important event of the quinquennium was the introduction of the new scheme for the registration and certification of accountants on an all-India basis, the main features of which were mentioned in paragraph 14 of Chapter VIII of the report for the last quinquennium. The scheme, which came into force on the 1st April 1932, provides for the maintenance by the Governor-General in Council of a Register of Accountants and only such persons as are enrolled on this Register are entitled to the grant of Auditor's Certificates enabling them to be appointed and to act as auditors of public companies in British India. Except as otherwise provided in the auditor's Certificates Rules, 1932, which embody this scheme, a person wishing to qualify himself for the grant of an Auditor's Certificate must now pass two examinations—First and Final—instead of only one examination under the old regulations, and must serve under articles, with an approved accountant, i.e., an accountant specially approved by the Governor-General in Council for

this purpose. The new examinations are conducted by the Government of India and have replaced the Government Diploma Examination in Accountancy, which used to be conducted by the Accountancy Diploma Board, Bombay, under the control of the Government of Bombay. The standard of these examinations is higher and their curriculum more comprehensive than those of the old examination. The period of practical training, which used to be three years under the old regulations and could be served either before or after the examination, has also been increased to four years in the case of graduates and five years in the case of others, and must be served before a candidate can be admitted to the Final Examination. The First Examination was held for the first time in 1933 and the Final Examination in 1935. The following table gives necessary statistics in regard to these examinations :—

TABLE CXL.

Results of Auditors' Certificate Examinations.

Year.	First Examination.			Final Examination.		
	Appeared.	Passed	Pass percentage.	Appeared	Passed	Pass percentage.
1933	60	28	46.6
1934	116	44	37.9
1935	90	34	34.3	178	11	6.2
1936	95	34	35.8	174	26	14.0

The condition regarding previous practical training in the case of the Final Examination was relaxed as a special case temporarily for three years (1935, 1936 and 1937), in favour of persons who had appeared and failed at the Government Diploma Examination in Accountancy held in 1932, 1933 and 1934, and such persons were also exempted from passing the First Examination. This explains the large number of candidates for the Final Examination in the years 1935 and 1936.

CHAPTER IX.

EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES AND COMMUNITIES.

(i) *Education of Chiefs and Nobles.*

Five Chiefs' Colleges are maintained in India, mainly for the education of the sons and relatives of the chiefs and princes of India. The following table shows the enrolment of these colleges at the end of the last three quinquennial.

TABLE CXII.

Enrolment of Chiefs' Colleges.

Colleges.	1926-27.	1931-32.	1936-37.
Mayo College, Ajmer ..	126	115	159
Daly College, Indore ..	63	78	87
Aitchison College, Lahore ..	106	72	115
Rajkumar College, Rajkot ..	43	29	37
Rajkumar College, Raipur ..	50	42	60
Total ..	388	336	458

While the total enrolment of the five colleges declined during the last quinquennium from 388 in 1927 to 336 in 1932, it has advanced to 458 in 1937. The increase of 122 pupils during the quinquennium under review is shared by all the colleges.

2. Most colleges prepare students for the Chiefs' Colleges Diploma Examination, which is conducted by the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India. This examination is regarded as equivalent to the Matriculation Examination of an Indian University. There are two courses; one is "suitable for those intending to proceed to a university course"; the other "qualifies a candidate for a full diploma but not necessarily for admission to any institution for higher studies". The table below gives the results of this examination.

TABLE CXIII.
Chiefs' Colleges Diploma Examination.

Colleges.	1932-33.		1933-34.		1934-35.		1935-36.		1936-37.	
	Candidates.	Successful candidates.								
Mayo College, Ajmer	20	16	8	4	15	10	11	8	15	14
Daly College, Indore	8	8	12	11	4	4
Aitchison College, Lahore.	21	9	11	10	15	15	6	6
Rajkumar College, Rajkot.	3	3	5	2	3	2	1	..
Rajkumar College, Raipur.	5	4	4	4	1	1	4	3	2	2
Total	..	49	32	28	20	42	36	33	22	20

3. The Diploma examination was abandoned by the Aitchison College, Lahore, after the examination held in April 1936, in favour of the Cambridge Junior Certificate and School Certificate Examinations. On the other hand, the Daly College, Indore, which had prepared candidates for High School Examination from 1926 to 1934, reverted to the Diploma course as being more suited to the needs of the Kumars.

4. The Mayo College, Ajmer, continued to prepare boys for the Higher Diploma Examination during the quinquennium. The table below give the the results of this examination.

TABLE CXIV.
CHIEFS' COLLEGES HIGHER DIPLOMA EXAMINATION.

Mayo College, Ajmer.

Year.	Higher Diploma Intermediate.		Higher Diploma Final.	
	Candidates.	Successful Candidates.	Candidates.	Successful Candidates.
1932-33	..	5	5	..
1933-34	..	6	5	4
1934-35	..	11	9	3
1935-36	..	6	6	1
1936-37	8
Total	..	28	25	16
				12

Towards the close of 1936, the Council of the Aitchison College, Lahore, adopted a revised statute relating to admissions which opened the College to a fairly large number of families which had hitherto been debarred from sending their sons and relatives to this institution. In the last Review, a serious decline was noticed in the enrolment of this College. It is satisfactory to note that its enrolment in 1937 is the highest during the past decade. A class for candidates for the Indian Military Academy has also been opened in the College and special facilities are offered to those who desire to take training in Administration, Law and Estate Management. A modern science laboratory was constructed in 1934-35 and equipped with the latest apparatus and fittings.

The College celebrated its Golden Jubilee in 1936, and the occasion was marked by the institution of an Endowment Fund.

The Rajkumar College, Rajkot, suffers at present from its small numbers, and the difficulty in securing pupils in an Agency from which so many sons of Rulers are sent to England for education has been increased by the starting of the new Public School at Dehra Dun. The quinquennium has however witnessed a determined effort to improve the College. With the assistance of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, the methods of teaching have been revised. Expenses have been reduced and an important reform has been effected in the introduction of the system of dormitories and common messing. New rules for the management of the College were framed and introduced in 1932 whereby much greater control has been handed over to the College Council.

The Rajkumar College, Raipur, was also registered in 1932 under the Societies Registration Act of 1860. Another chief feature of the quinquennium was the improvement effected in the qualifications and conditions of service of the staff. New masters have been very carefully selected and higher standards have been demanded of them, salaries have been raised and time scales granted, contracts have been introduced and better quarters have been provided. The fees charged to students, which cover tuition, board, lodging, school clothing and subscriptions have been also considerably reduced.

8. The Colvin Taluqdars' Intermediate College, Lucknow, has been completely reorganized during the past five years. It has been raised to the status of an intermediate college and thrown open to non-taluqdars; the staff has also been greatly strengthened. Of the 97 boys on the roll on the 31st March, no fewer than 36 came from non-taluqdar families. The United Provinces Report states that "the College has been fortunate in attracting a number of brilliant students from other spheres of life; the spirit of competition, spurring on their taluqdar class fellows, has brought about a remarkable improvement in the standard of work... . The education and general training given is of a high standard and the Colvin Taluqdars' College may be considered the Public School of Oudh."¹

9. Mention may also be made here of the Indian Public School at Dehra Dun, called the Doon School. The school started with 70 boys on September 10, 1935. The official opening ceremony was performed by His Excellency the Viceroy, Lord Willingdon, in the presence of a distinguished company on October 26th. In February 1936 the number of pupils increased to 180, as new boarding accommodation became available and the number was further increased to 250 in March 1937 by the addition of another boarding house. English is the normal medium of instruction. The lowest class is about equivalent to the 6th class of the schools in the Punjab and the United Provinces, though the standard in English is higher. The first examination taken is the Cambridge School Certificate Examination. In 1937 there were 18 candidates of whom 16 passed; 8 were in the first grade and 3 in the second. The boys are drawn from all provinces and religions, and from many Indian States. The teaching staff consists of 6 English masters and 13 Indian masters. The School is managed by a Board of which His Excellency the Viceroy is President.

The School was started with a capital of 15 lakhs of rupees. Of this approximately 6 lakhs have been spent on land, buildings and equipment, and 9 lakhs have been kept as an endowment. The Government of India have allowed the School the use on favourable terms of the buildings and grounds at Chandbagh, Dehra Dun, that were vacated by the Forest Research Institute and College when the new Research Institute was built.

The School is provisionally recognised as an Intermediate College but only those students who have passed through the School are admitted to the intermediate classes.

(ii) Education of Anglo-Indians and Europeans.

10. The Anglo-Indian and European population of British India is approximately 2·7 lakhs. As it is the aim of the community to maintain a distinctive European character in the education given to their children, separate institutions are maintained for them. These institutions are governed by European Codes of Regulations for the prescription of courses, award of grants, etc.

11. In all provinces except in Burma, Anglo-Indian and European Education continued to be a "reserved" subject during the quinquennium, in charge of a member of the Executive Council of the provincial Government. At the end of the quinquennium, it ceased to be a "reserved" subject and would henceforth be under the control of the Minister for Education responsible to the elected legislature. In Burma, European education is already under the control of the provincial Minister for Education.

12. The constitution of Provincial Boards for Anglo-Indian and European Education in the provinces with an Inter-Provincial Board which has its headquarters at Delhi is the most outstanding event of the quinquennium, so far as the education of this community is concerned. These boards were set

up as a result of the recommendations of the Irwin Committee on Anglo-Indian and European Education, 1932. The functions of the Inter-Provincial Board are mainly co-ordinating. It is intended to maintain uniformity of educational standards, to keep provincial boards informed of special developments throughout India and to advise the Government of India and provincial Governments on matters concerning Anglo-Indian and European education. The Board is financed by *pro rata* contributions from the provinces. Its composition is as follows :—

- (a) Provincial Ministers of Education or their deputies ;
- (b) an equal number of persons nominated by provincial Governors, in consultation with Ministers of Education and the community concerned, in order to represent Anglo-Indian Schools ; and
- (c) two nominees of the Government of India in order to represent the interests of the community in centrally administered areas.

The tenure of members other than official members is three years. The Chairman is elected by the Board from among its members. The Chief Inspector of Anglo-Indian and European Schools is its Secretary.

13. The functions of the Provincial Boards are mainly to advise provincial Governments and to scrutinize the budget which relates to Anglo-Indian and European education. The composition of these boards has been laid down as consisting of the following :—

- (i) The Minister of Education or his deputy ;
- (ii) The Director of Public Instruction.
- (iii) Three representatives of the authorities responsible for the maintenance of Anglo-Indian and European educational institutions.
- (iv) Three Anglo-Indians, of whom one may be a woman, to be nominated by the Governor in consultation with the Minister of Education after taking into consideration any recommendation put forward by the Anglo-Indian community.
- (v) Three persons actively engaged in teaching in Anglo-Indian and European educational institutions, one of whom shall be an Anglo-Indian and one a woman.
- (vi) One representative of university education.
- (vii) The Inspector of Anglo-Indian and European Schools, *ex-officio* Secretary, without vote.

14. The following tables give the main statistical figures relating to the various types of institutions for the education of Anglo-Indians and Europeans and their enrolment.

TABLE CXV.
Number of Anglo-Indian and European schools for boys and their enrolment.

Year.	Colleges,		High schools.		Middle schools		Primary schools.		Special schools.		Institutionalization.	Institutionalization.	Total.
	Insti- tutions	Enrol- ment	Insti- tutions	Facil- lity ment	Institu- tions	Enrol- ment	Institu- tions	Enrol- ment	Institu- tions	Enrol- ment			
1926-27	7	263	60	10,761	42	4,529	65	3,287	3	176	176	25,045	
1931-32	8	293	72	17,669	36	4,641	48	3,312	3	268	167	26,041	
1939-37	8	487	75	19,787	32	5,225	41	3,332	1	251	169	27,922	
Increase between 1927-32													
Decrease between 1932-37													
	1	39	3	3,869	-6	79	-7	-73	-1	92	-2	926	
	6	104	3	2,127	-1	632	-1	-125	-1	120	-1	2,151	

TABLE CXVI.
Number of Anglo-Indian and European schools for girls and their enrollment.

During the quinquennium, the total number of colleges maintained for Anglo-Indians and Europeans increased from 10 to 11 and their strength from 336 to 573. The number of high schools rose from 178 to 188 and their enrolment from 37,254 to 42,295. The number of middle schools declined from 96 to 84, though their strength showed a slight increase from 11,780 to 11,931. The number of primary schools also declined from 119 to 104, but their enrolment rose from 7,886 to 7,951. The decrease in the number of middle and primary schools is mainly attributable to the need for concentration with a view to economy, which is felt everywhere. The Bombay Report states that "this gradual concentration of pupils in a smaller number of schools is to be welcomed, as it makes for economy and efficiency".¹

The figures of enrolment in colleges and high schools indicate that the members of the domiciled community are now taking to higher education in larger numbers although they are still behindhand in collegiate education.

Welcome news comes from Burma which reports that "there was a significant increase in the number of Anglo-Burman and European students in the university. During the quinquennium, the number rose from 67 men and 43 women to 122 men and 69 women. Thirty-three Europeans and Anglo-Burmans graduated in March 1937 as against 9 in 1932. Anglo-Burman girls distinguished themselves in the University examinations. In the examination of 1937 three graduated with First Class Honours and one passed the M.Sc. examination with Second Class Honours."²

15. The provincial figures showing the number of institutions and their enrolment are given in the table below.

TABLE CXVII.

Number of Anglo-Indian and European schools and their enrolment, by provinces.

Province.	Institutions.			Pupils.		
	1932.	1937.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).	1932.	1937.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
Madras	82	77	-5	10,759	11,458	+699
Bombay	37	(a) 32	(a)	5,456	(a) 5,259	(a)
Bengal	69	68	-1	11,586	12,322	+736
United Provinces	58	50	-8	6,561	6,853	+289
Punjab	32	32	..	2,847	3,141	+294
Burma	36	38	+3	10,191	12,097	+1,906
Bihar	21	(a) 17	(a)	1,624	(a) 1,291	(a)
Central Provinces and Berar	37	37	..	2,801	3,128	+327

¹Bombay, page 183.²Burma, page 38

Number of Anglo-Indian and European schools and their enrolment, by provinces—contd.

Province.	Institutions.			Pupils.		
	1932.	1937.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).	1932.	1937.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
Assam	4	4	..	354	526	+172
North-West Frontier Province	1	1	..	53	174	+121
Sind	(a)	3	(a)	(a)	613	(a)
Orissa	(a)	3	(a)	(a)	439	(a)
Coorg
Delhi	2	2	..	163	265	+102
Ajmer-Merwara	8	2	+1	657	748	+91
Baluchistan	2	..	-2	269	..	-269
Bangalore	21	19	-2	2,576	3,300	+324
Other Administered Areas	13	11	-2	1,553	1,584	+31
British India	422	463	-19	57,918	63,193	+5,275

Although there has been a gradual decline in the number of institutions in various provinces, the enrolment has gone up in every province except Baluchistan, where the two schools which catered for the Anglo-Indian and European community were destroyed by the earthquake of 1935. Madras, Bengal and Burma show large increases in enrolment. These three provinces have also the largest number of pupils—Madras, 11,458, Bengal, 12,322 and Burma, 12,097. Next in order are the United Provinces with an enrolment of 6,853 and Bombay with that of 5,259, other provinces have each less than 5,000 pupils.

16. The enrolment in these institutions is not in fact a reliable indication of the number of Anglo-Indians and Europeans under instruction as a large number of non-Europeans attend them: the enrolment of 63,193 in these institutions include 17,189 Indian pupils or 27·2 per cent of the total. On the other hand, many Anglo-Indian and European pupils are to be found in Indian institutions. There are actually 50,507 pupils belonging to this community at schools of all kinds—25,369 boys and 25,138 girls. The corresponding figures during the last quinquennium were 48,801 pupils—24,908 boys and 23,893 girls. There has thus been an increase of 1,706 in the number of Anglo-Indian and European pupils—an increase of 461 in the number of boys and of 1,245 in that of girls.

The percentage of Anglo-Indian and European pupils to the total Anglo-Indian and European population in British India is 23·5 as against 5·2 for all communities. This high percentage shows that practically all the children of school-going-age belonging to the community are attending school.

(a) While in 1931-32 Sind formed part of Bombay and Orissa of Bihar, they were constituted into separate provinces in 1936-37. Hence the figures for 1932 and 1937 are not strictly comparable for these four provinces.

17. The provincial figures showing the percentage of non-Europeans to Europeans in European schools are given in the table below.

TABLE CXVIII.

Enrolment of Non-European pupils in Anglo-Indian and European schools, 1936-37.

Province. (1)	Total number of pupils. (2)	No. of non- European pupils. (3)	Percentage of (3) to (2). (4)
Madras	11,458	2,141	18·7
Bombay	5,259	1,227	23·3
Bengal	12,322	2,931	23·8
United Provinces	6,853	1,150	16·8
Punjab	3,141	491	15·6
Burma	12,097	6,292	52·0
Bihar	1,291	183	14·2
Central Provinces and Berar	3,128	1,235	39·5
Assam	526	122	23·2
North-West Frontier Province	174	97	55·7
Sind	613	112	18·2
Orissa	439	92	21·0
Coorg
Delhi	265	42	15·8
Ajmer-Merwara	748	85	11·4
Baluchistan
Bangalore	3,300	602	18·2
Other Administered Areas	1,584	387	24·4
British India	63,198	17,189	27·2

In Madras, the increase in the number of Indians reading in the European schools for general education was more than double the increase in the number of European pupils. The proportion of non-Europeans admitted into any European school may be 33½ per cent, which is a higher proportion than obtains in most parts of India.

In Bengal also, Indian pupils are seeking admission in increasing numbers to European schools. This has resulted in the percentage of admission of non-Europeans being raised from 15 to 25 and in some cases special permission has been granted to exceed the 25 per cent. limit.

In the United Provinces, owing to the influx of non-Europeans into the lower classes of European schools, where they suffer from the handicap of imperfect English, Government has, on the recommendation of the Provincial Board for Anglo-Indian and European Education, laid down that, while these schools may admit non-Europeans up to a limit of 25 per cent. of the total enrolment, the enrolment of non-Europeans in any class below class VI shall not exceed 33½ per cent. of the total enrolment of each of these classes.

In the Punjab also, great pressure is brought to bear on the European schools to exceed the 15 per cent. limit fixed for Indians.

The popularity of these schools among Indian parents is thus obviously increasing. This is attributed mainly to a higher standard of instruction and more efficient discipline generally but there is also a tendency on the part of the upper class Indian parents to send their children to these schools with the object of helping them to acquire greater fluency in speaking and writing English.

18. The following table shows the cost of Anglo-Indian and European education in British India.

TABLE CXIX.

Expenditure on recognised institutions for Anglo-Indians and Europeans.

Year.	Expenditure met from—				Total expenditure.
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1926-27 ..	50,98,162	52,236	53,94,471	45,16,549	1,50,61,418
1931-32 ..	47,18,670	50,764	62,43,495	45,26,227	1,55,39,156
1936-37 ..	45,63,578	34,810	62,82,607	44,96,204	1,53,79,490
Increase (+) or decrease (-) between 1927-32.	-3,79,492	-1,472	+8,49,024	+9,678	+4,77,738
Increase (+) or decrease (-) between 1932-37.	-1,52,792	-16,954	+39,112	-30,023	-1,59,657

While there was an increase of Rs. 4,77,738 in the total expenditure on Anglo-Indian and European education during the last quinquennium, there has been a decrease of Rs. 1,59,657 in expenditure during the period under review. With the exception of expenditure met from fees, in which there is an increase of Rs. 39,112, there has been a general decrease in the expenditure met from the remaining heads. Government contributions show a decline of Rs. 1,52,792, board funds of Rs. 16,954 and other sources of Rs. 30,023. Economic depression and financial stringency seem to be responsible for this state of affairs.

The cost of European education is still high. This is attributable to the relatively high standard of living of staff and pupils as well as to the uneconomical size of the majority of schools. A very high proportion of the cost is met from fees and private sources, which contribute over Rs. 107 $\frac{3}{4}$ lakhs as against a contribution of Rs. 46 lakhs from Government and board funds.

19. The number of teachers employed in the Anglo-Indian and European Schools is given in the following table.

TABLE CXX.

Teachers in Anglo-Indian and European schools.

Provincee.	Teachers (1937).		Percentage of trained teachers.	
	Total number.	Trained.	1932.	1937.
Madras	767	626	73·7	81·6
Bombay	336	262	65·7	78·0
Bengal	837	492	60·9	58·8
United Provinces..	481	385	76·3	80·0
Punjab	252	190	71·7	75·4
Burma	489	422	77·4	86·3
Bihar	97	65	68·1	67·0
Central Provincees and Berar	167	111	55·5	66·4
Assam	50	43	80·0	86·0
North-West Frontier Provincee	10	10	100	100
Sind	34	20	(a)	58·8
Orissa	31	19	(a)	61·3
Coorg
Delhi	22	20	61·5	90·9
Ajmer-Merwara	36	22	33·3	61·1
Baluchistan	78·6	..
Bangalore	222	148	68·2	66·6
Other Administered Areas	101	62	39·8	61·4
British India ..	3,932	2,897	68·3	73·7

(a) In 1932, Sind was included in Bombay, and Orissa in Bihar.

The total number of teachers has increased from 3,808 in 1932 to 3,932 in 1937, and the percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers from 68·3 per cent. to 73·7 per cent. This is generally satisfactory.

In Madras, a further improvement has been effected in the staffing of Anglo-Indian and European institutions. Out of the 767 teachers employed in them 626 are trained or 81·6 per cent. as against 73·7 per cent. during the last quinquennium. There has also been a marked rise in the number of graduate trained teachers, which has advanced from 80 to 121. The two training schools for women teachers continue to train Anglo-Indian and European teachers. In the absence of a European training school for men in this Province, Government approved in 1933-34 of the admission of men into one of these two schools, and 22 masters underwent training between 1934-37 in addition to women teachers. The secondary grade training class in the Teachers' College, Saidapet, also continues to be open to men teachers of this community.

In Bombay, the number of trained and qualified teachers has increased steadily throughout the quinqueunium. An additional wing was erected at St. Mary's Training College, Poona, which prepares students for the B. E. S. T. D. and B. K. T. C. examinations. A further extension of the buildings is considered to be still necessary to meet the growing demand. There are no European training institutions for men in this province, and candidates for training are sent to the Chelmsford Training College, Ghoragali, in the Punjab.

In Bengal, during the quinquennium under report arrangements were made for the training of men teachers (Anglo-Indians and Europeans) in the newly opened Training classes attached to the St. Xavier's College, Calcutta. The Dow Hill Training College, Kurseong, continued to train women teachers for employment in European schools. Loreto House, Calcutta, has training classes which prepare Anglo-Indian and Indian women teachers for the L. T. diploma and B. T. degree of the Calcutta University.

In the United Provinces, the proportion of trained teachers shows an increase from 76·3 per cent. to 80 per cent. This is largely due to the fact that Government in order to enable schools to attract trained teachers now makes grants equivalent to half their salaries. The number of graduate teachers has also risen from 19·6 per cent. to 27 per cent. of the total number. The supply of women trained teachers comes mainly from the training department of All Saints' Diocesan College, Naini Tal, and the Isabella Thoburn College, Lucknow, the remaining teachers being recruited from Colleges outside the United Provinces. Men teachers are trained at the Chelmsford Training College, Ghoragali (Punjab), which takes annually 4 or 5 men, who receive stipends from the Government of the United Provinces.

In the Punjab, the percentage of trained teachers employed in the Anglo-Indian and European schools has during the period under review risen from 71·7 per cent. to 75·4 per cent. The untrained teachers are chiefly non-secular and most of them are men with considerable experience of teaching. The Chelmsford Training College for Men, Ghoragali, has done successful work during the past five years. The college building was destroyed by fire in 1935 but a new and better building has since been constructed. The St. Bede's College for Women, Simla, has also continued to do very good work during the period. An increasing number of young nuns now take their training there.

In the Central Provinces, all possible efforts are being made to replace the untrained teachers on the staffs of the European Schools by trained teachers. At present the number of trained teachers in the province is 66·4 per cent.

On the whole, the European schools in British India are well-staffed, and the high standard of previous years is being not only maintained but also raised further.

20. In the last Review it was stated that there had been criticism of the staffing of European schools on the ground that only a small number of posts were filled by members of the domiciled community and that very few of them had been placed in charge of important schools. The table below shows the number of members of the domiciled community on the staffs of Anglo-Indian and European schools.

TABLE CXXI.

Members of the domiciled Community on the staffs of Anglo-Indian and European Schools in 1936-37.

Province.	Teachers including Headmasters and Headmistresses.		Percent- age of (B) to (A).	Headmasters and Headmistresses.	
	Total No. (A).	* Members of the domiciled communi- ty (B).		Total No.	Member* of the domiciled communi- ty.
Madras	748	549	73·4	76	38
Bombay	346	187	54·0	32	11
Bengal	799	432	54·1	72	24
United Provinces	481	353	73·4	48	35
Punjab	270	198	73·3	25	12
Bihar	97	77	79·4	17	10
Central Provinces and Berar	167	118	70·7	36	17
Assam	36	11	30·6	4	..
North-West Frontier Province	9	2	22·2	1	..
Sind	26	20	76·9	4	2
Orissa	34	25	73·5	3	..
Delhi	22	18	81·8	2	1
Ajmer-Merwara	64	27	42·2	10	4
Central India	20	11	55·0	3	2
Bangalore	199	147	73·9	15	7
Baluchistan	6	4	66·7	1	..

These figures show that in fact the percentage of the staffs of European schools which belongs to the domiciled community is high, although the number occupying posts as headmasters and headmistresses does not compare so favourably with that of Europeans. This is due to the fact that in the past members of this community were reluctant to take to the teaching profession and comparatively few became graduates and received training. With the growth of higher education among them, this disparity in the higher grades is likely to disappear.

* The term "Domiciled community" signifies "Anglo-Indians" as contrasted with "Europeans."

21. The question of the examinations for which the Anglo-Indian and European schools should prepare their pupils has long been a matter of controversy. Recently, however, the Cambridge Local Examinations have been increasingly adopted as the standard examinations in most provinces.

In Bombay, the curriculum of nearly all Anglo-Indian and European schools leads up to the Cambridge Local Examinations and the same is true generally of Bengal. In the latter, however, there are indications that University qualifications are being more largely sought after than in the past. Several secondary schools have instituted collegiate classes which enable them to prepare candidates for the Intermediate Examination of the Calcutta University.

In the United Provinces, the Cambridge Junior and School-Certificate examinations continue to be taken at the end of the middle and high school courses respectively. Science (physics and chemistry) has now been introduced in practically all the high schools of the province, although much still has to be done to improve the accommodation and equipment for the proper teaching of the subject.

In the Punjab, all high schools prepare pupils for the Cambridge School Certificate Examination. In 1936-37, the Punjab Provincial Board for Anglo-Indian and European Education examined the question whether it was desirable to retain the Middle School Examination for Europeans and after a long discussion decided to recommend that this examination be abolished and that the Junior Cambridge Examination should be taken in the 8th standard. The matter is now under the consideration of the Education department.

In Bihar, the question whether a change is desirable from the Cambridge Local Examinations to the Matriculation and Intermediate examinations of Indian Universities is still undecided, the majority of the heads of schools being opposed to any change for the present.

In the Central Provinces, the Cambridge Local Examinations were substituted for the departmental examinations in 1928-29.

Madras is the only important province in which all European schools, with two exceptions, prepare pupils for the Middle and High School Examinations conducted by the European School Leaving Certificate Board. This Board was twice reconstituted during the period under report, i.e., in 1932 and 1935. The syllabuses and regulations were also revised in Drawing for Middle and High School Examinations and in Mathematics for the Middle School Examination.

In 1935, the Madras Provincial Board for Anglo-Indian and European Education proposed a scheme for an All-India European High School Examination, but this was not accepted by the Boards of other provinces. The Inter-Provincial Board for Anglo-Indian and European Education was in favour of a common standard of examination for all Anglo-Indian and European high schools in India, but considered that this objective could best be attained by presenting candidates at the Cambridge School Certificate Examination.

The Madras Board has also suggested an alternative High School Examination of a more vocational character for the benefit of those candidates who do not want the more academic type of examination. This is still under consideration.

(iii) *Education of Muslims.*

22. Apart from those educational institutions which cater for all the communities in India, there are two different types of educational institutions that are maintained specially for the Muslims. One of these types includes the Islamia Colleges which prepare for the ordinary examinations of a university, the Islamia secondary schools which prepare boys for the matriculation or high school examination, and the Islamia primary schools which are generally maintained by district authorities.

The other type comprises madrassahs, maktabs, mulla schools and Quran schools. These institutions determine their own curriculum, which is essentially of a religious character. The madrassahs are found mostly in Bengal, maktabs mostly in Bengal and the United Provinces, and mullah schools chiefly in Sind. There are a large number of pupils attending these institutions. In Bengal, the number of boys in maktabs increased from 614,717 in 1932 to 677,561 in 1937 and that of girls from 244,816 to 309,071. In the United Provinces, the enrolment in the recognised maktabs rose from 53,070 to 60,213 during the same period. In Sind, however, the number of pupils attending mulla schools decreased from 31,950 in 1932 to 29,070 in 1937. There was also a large number of maktabs in Bihar. The Government of Bihar have decided to call them primary Urdu schools and are aiming at a uniform standard. In other provinces also, efforts have been made to improve the conditions of these institutions. Although as religious institutions they are still popular with a certain section of the Muslim community, their limitations from the point of view of secular education are being increasingly recognised and Muslim boys and girls are now entering general institutions in larger numbers than before.

23. The following table shows the number of Muslim pupils in all types of institutions and their percentages to population.

TABLE CXXII.

School enrolment of Muslims.

Year.	Number of Muslim pupils in all institutions.	Percentage of—		
		Muslim population to total population.	Muslim pupils to Muslim population.	Muslim pupils to total pupils.
1926-27	2,821,109	24·1	4·7	25·3
1931-32	3,408,758	24·7	5·2	26·7
1936-37	3,688,839	24·7	5·5	26·1
Increase between 1927 and 1932 ..	587,649	0·6	0·5	1·4
Increase between 1932 and 1937 ..	280,081	..	0·3	—0·6

The progress made during recent years in the enrolment of Muslim pupils has been very rapid. In 1921-22, there were only 1,966,442 Muslims under instruction. During the last fifteen years, their enrolment has gone up by over 17 lakhs to 3,688,839. There has been a corresponding increase in the percentage of Muslim pupils to Muslim population, which rose from 3·3 in 1921-22 to 4·7 in 1926-27 and 5·2 in 1931-32. To-day the percentage of Muslim pupils to Muslim population is 5·5. While the Muslim population is 24·7 per cent. of the total population, the Muslim pupils form 26·1 per cent. of the total number of pupils of all communities.

The table below gives similar figures for the provinces.

TABLE CXXIII.

Muslim pupils and population with comparative percentages.

Province.	Percentage of Muslim popula- tion to total popula- tion.	1932.			1937.		
		Muslim pupils (all ins- titutions)	Percentage of Muslim pupils to Muslim popula- tion.	Percentage of Muslim pupils to total pupils.	Muslim pupils (all ins- titutions).	Percentage of Muslim pupils to Muslim popula- tion.	Percentage of Muslim pupils to total pupils.
Madras	7·5	319,506	9·7	10·9	350,267	10·8	11·2
Bombay	8·8	259,003	5·8	19·4	183,038	11·6	13·7
Bengal	54·9	1,437,978	5·2	51·7	1,658,393	6·0	61·7
United Provinces	14·8	282,782	3·9	18·6	301,284	4·2	18·3
Punjab	56·5	675,061	5·1	50·6	624,637	4·7	48·6
Burma	4·0	32,431	5·5	4·5	33,948	5·8	4·5
Bihar	12·8	148,141	3·5	13·5	150,425	3·6	14·9
Central Provinces and Berar.	4·4	40,219	7·2	10·7	53,312	7·8	10·7
Assam	32·0	103,802	3·9	29·2	126,090	4·6	27·4
North-West Frontier Province.	91·8	64,158	2·9	72·5	70,214	3·2	71·0
Sind	72·8	(a)	(a)	(a)	89,812	3·2	48·7
Orissa	1·6	(a)	(a)	(a)	9,728	7·5	2·9
Coorg	8·4	366	2·7	3·5	610	4·4	5·0
Delhi	32·5	13,328	6·4	30·0	16,087	7·7	31·0
Ajmer-Merwara	17·3	5,034	5·2	20·9	5,638	5·8	19·9
Baluchistan	87·4	6,225	1·5	60·9	5,074	1·2	68·8
Baugalore	21·3	2,457	8·6	14·6	2,777	9·7	14·8
Other Administered Areas	4·0	4,237	16·5	18·9	3,476	(b)	18·3
British India	24·7	3,408,758	5·2	26·7	3,688,839	5·5	26·1

(a) In 1932, Sind formed part of Bombay and Orissa or Bihar.

(b) Figures for the Muslim population of certain administered areas are not available. Hence no percentage has been shown.

24. The following table gives the percentages for Muslim girls reading in all types of institutions.

TABLE CXXIV.

Percentage of Muslim Girl pupils in all institutions.

Province.	Percentage of Muslim female popula- tion to total female popula- tion.	Percentage of Muslim girl pupils to Mus- lim female popula- tion.		Percentage of Muslim girl pupils to total number of girl pupils.	
		1932.	1937.	1932.	1937.
Madras	7.5	5.1	6.3	11.5	11.4
Bombay	8.4	2.9	6.9	19.8	12.4
Bengal	55.2	2.3	3.0	55.4	55.2
United Provinces	14.9	0.8	1.0	15.7	15.5
Punjab	56.9	1.6	1.7	47.2	43.9
Burma	3.1	4.2	4.7	4.3	4.5
Bihar	12.9	1.1	12.2	19.7	21.5
Central Provinces and Berar ..	4.2	2.8	3.5	13.6	13.6
Assam	33.0	1.5	1.6	22.0	22.5
North-West Frontier Province ..	92.9	0.5	0.7	38.5	40.4
Sind	72.7	(a)	1.4	(a)	36.5
Orissa	1.6	(a)	3.8	(a)	4.3
Coorg	6.6	0.9	3.0	1.4	3.8
Delhi	32.2	2.6	3.8	23.3	25.5
Ajmer-Merwara	16.8	1.6	1.9	16.5	1.6
Baluchistan	91.4	0.4	0.3	31.4	42.6
Bangalore	20.4	6.1	6.2	12.4	11.3
Other Administered Areas ..	21.6	5.6	5.4	9.4	8.7
British India	24.1	2.0	2.5	26.0	25.6

(a) In 1932 Sind formed part of Bombay and Orissa of Bihar.

25. These Muslim boys and girls are distributed in the various types of institutions as shown in the tables below.

TABLE CXXV.

Muslim boys receiving instruction.

Province	Muslim boys (1937)							Total No. of Muslim boys receiving instruc- tion	
	Arts Colleges	Pro- fessional Colleges	Secondary Schools	Primary Schools	Special Schools	Other Institu- tions	Total	1937	1937
	University or Deputy Universi- ty Institu- tions	Deputy University Institu- tions	Deputy University Institu- tions	Deputy University Institu- tions	Deputy University Institu- tions	Deputy University Institu- tions	Deputy University Institu- tions	1937	1937
Madras	624	121	14,621	220,901	1,725	16,264	223,403	223,403	223,403
Bengal	476	103	19,169	109,411	2,264	9,745	20,158	20,158	20,158
Bengal	4,350	619	71,428	1,94,613	50,453	22,307	1,167,453	1,167,453	1,167,453
United Provinces ..	2,962	541	29,452	208,174	5,227	27,124	45,541	45,541	45,541
Punjab	3,459	622	56,120	56,023	5,712	10,204	57,623	57,623	57,623
Burma	97	12	2,912	17,263	270	2,460	23,609	23,609	23,609
Bihar	442	103	16,642	53,029	6,901	10,316	123,271	123,271	123,271
Central Provinces and Berar	217	50	4,252	25,219	504	1,722	41,744	41,744	41,744
Assam	493	14	17,514	81,220	1,546	11,773	95,361	95,361	95,361
North West Frontier Province	376	..	7,363	52,174	121	2,512	54,742	54,742	54,742
Sind	167	31	11,412	34,651	671	5,913	(a)	72,926	72,926
Orissa	29	..	750	5,814	324	223	(a)	7,123	7,123
Coorg	53	401	7	..	524	464	464
Delhi	333	10	2,623	7,509	316	2,201	11,037	11,037	11,037
Ajmer-Merwara ..	52	..	631	3,191	56	761	4,311	4,311	4,311
Baluchistan	415	3,573	..	277	3,850	4,225	4,225
Bangalore	34	..	325	1,292	37	253	1,644	1,644	1,644
Other Administered Areas	2	..	551	2,041	10	220	3,093	3,093	3,093
British India { 1937 ..	14,231	2,162	245,232	2,333,172	103,590	170,574	2,585,555	2,585,555	2,585,555
British India { 1932 ..	10,835	2,310	205,950	2,215,833	118,751	170,291	2,781,045	2,781,045	2,781,045

(a) While in 1931-32, Sind formed part of Bombay, and Orissa of Bihar, they were constituted into separate provinces in 1936-37. The figures for 1932 and 1937 are therefore not strictly comparable for these four provinces.

TABLE CXXVI.
Muslim girls receiving instructions.

Province.	Reading in— (1937).						Total No. of Muslim girls under instruc- tion.	
	Arts Colleges or University Depart- ments.	Profes- sional Colleges or University Depart- ments.	Second- ary stage (Class VI to end of high school course).	Primary stage (Classes I-V).	Special schools.	Unrecog- nised institut- ions.	1932.	1937.
Madras	12	5	1,025	100,096	185	3,331	85,598 (a)	104,654 (a)
Bombay	21	7	1,379	43,743	113	5,190	57,869	50,453
Bengal	45	2	984	395,566	2,504	5,576	310,021	404,677
United Provinces ..	69	2	1,122	30,816	250	2,499	26,241	34,758
Punjab	165	34	3,082	51,881	944	51,953	100,742	108,050
Burma	6	2	230	8,651	25	1,521	9,332 (a)	10,435 (a)
Bihar	150	23,085	51	2,300	24,368	25,586
Central Provinces and Berar.	2	..	93	10,376	100	947	9,019	11,518
Assam	13	..	368	15,658	135	4,329	13,701	20,503
North West Frontier Province	307	6,210	27	302	5,226	8,846
Sind	1	..	584	14,572	15	1,781	(a)	16,953
Oriasa	11	2,492	12	76	(a)	2,591
Coorg	1	145	42	146
Delhi	9	22	274	2,574	33	353	2,231	3,265
Ajmer-Merwara	7	734	..	124	723	865
Baluchistan	264	..	285	660	549
Bangalore ..	3	..	32	773	..	11	809	810
Other Administered Areas.	26	530	1	50	631	607
British India	1937 ..	346	74	9,675	709,166	4,395	80,628	803,284
	1932 ..	105	22	5,185	558,792	2,255	81,354	647,713

(a) *Vide* remarks at the bottom of the previous table.

26. During the quinquennium, the total enrolment of Muslim boys increased by about 1½ lakhs. With the exception of "special schools", which record a fall of 9,861 pupils, this increase is shared by all stages of education. In arts colleges or university departments the enrolment of Muslim boys increased by 3,446 from 10,835 in 1932 to 14,281 in 1937, in the professional colleges from 2,340 to 2,402, in the secondary stage by 38,242 from 206,990 to 245,232

and in the primary stage by 92,334 from 2,245,838 to 2,338,172. Proportionally there has been a more rapid increase in the number of Muslim girl pupils. In arts colleges their enrolment has risen from 105 in 1932 to 346 in 1937, in the professional colleges from 22 to 74, in the secondary stage from 5,185 to 9,675 and in the primary stage from 558,792 to 708,166. This progress is encouraging and is shared by almost all the provinces.

In Madras, there was a satisfactory increase in the number of Muslim boys and girls under instruction in public institutions, the increase being 9 per cent. in the case of boys and 26 per cent. in the case of girls.

The period under review also witnessed steady, if slow, progress in the spread of the education of the Mappillas, who are a most conservative Muslim community in Madras. The Madras report observes that "the increase in the number of (Mappilla) boys and girls under instruction in elementary and secondary schools, the improvement in the attendance of pupils in elementary schools as well as in the strength of higher elementary schools for Mappillas, the marked increase in the number of trained Mappilla teachers, considerably rising in proportion to non-Mappilla teachers employed in Mappilla schools, and the growing number of the trained Mulla teachers competent to impart instructions in secular and religious subjects are encouraging features which make for definite progress. Even so, however, the advance is not as rapid as could be desired."¹

One of the chief obstacles in the spread of the Mappilla education is stated to be "the dreary and tiresome course of religious instruction extending to long periods in the morning under the old fashioned Mulla and making the children intellectually unfit for further study during the rest of the day".² It is suggested that more rapid progress among this community can be secured if, among other things, a definite syllabus of religious instruction is introduced and provision of additional facilities for training of teachers is made.

Bombay also reports "that the educational progress of Muslims has been as satisfactory as could have been expected under the rather unfavourable financial circumstances of the quinquennium".³ There has been an increase of 11.3 per cent. in the number of Muslim pupils in the province. While comparing the percentage of pupils from the various communities to the population of each, the Bombay Report observes that the Muslims "are decidedly in advance of the intermediate and backward Hindus and their percentage is much higher than the percentage of all communities or of Hindus as a whole",⁴ though they are still behind the advanced Hindus.

In Bengal, the position is reported to be fairly satisfactory. The total number of Muslim pupils is nearly twice what it was in 1922. The number of Muslim pupils in schools is now roughly proportionate to the total Muslim population. But 'wastage' in the primary stage is considerably greater among Muslim pupils than in the case of other communities. Signs of improve-

¹ Madras, page 137.

² Madras, page 138.

³ Bombay, page 208.

⁴ Bombay, page 196.

ment are, however, noticeable and it is reported that 'wastage' was considerably less during the quinquennium under report. The progress made by the Muslims in secondary and higher education has been more satisfactory. In 1937, Muslim boys formed 22.8 per cent. of the total number of pupils in high school stage as against 18.7 in 1932. In arts colleges (including university classes), the corresponding percentages were 15.4 and 13.3. Muslim girls made still greater relative progress. There are now 341 Muslim girls in the high school stage as against 92 in 1932 and in arts colleges 45 as against 8. Muslim girls, especially from better-off families, are now coming forward in increasing numbers to high schools and arts colleges, but the rural Muslim population is still less alive than the Hindus to the importance of providing secular education for girls. The Bengal Report states that "one reason of this may be that they rightly consider that the education as at present provided for the rural girls is unsatisfactory".¹

There has been a marked improvement in the United Provinces also. The provincial report states that Muslim parents now realize the need of educating their children more than they did in the past. Additional funds are needed in almost all the districts of the province to meet the increasing demand for new Muslim schools.

In the Punjab, the arts colleges (excluding high classes of intermediate colleges) and professional colleges show an increase of 550 and 113 respectively in the number of Muslims. But it is depressing to note that there was a fall of 7,577 boys at the secondary stage and of 51,902 at the primary stage. As a result the total enrolment of Muslim boys in that province has gone down by 10 per cent., during the quinquennium. This is mainly due to economic depression which has also caused a fall of 5.6 per cent. in the enrolment of Sikh boys and of 2.4 per cent. in that of Hindu boys. There has, however, been satisfactory progress in girls' education among all the communities. Among the Hindus, there is an increase of 14,950 girls, among the Muslims of 10,685 girls and among the Sikhs of 8,321 girls. This increase is spread over institutions of all kinds.

In Delhi, the percentage of Muslim pupils to the Muslim population, which is now 7.7, is gradually reaching the level of the percentage of the pupils of other communities to their total population, which is 8.3. The Delhi Report observes that the Muslim community is becoming more and more alive to the need for and the advantages to be derived from secular education.

27. On the whole, the prospect for the education of Muslims is bright. It will be seen from the statistics given in previous pages that throughout India the number of Muslim pupils in schools of all kinds is on the increase. The Muslim community, however, or a certain section of it, still regards the absence of any provision for religious instruction in the ordinary schools as a deterrent factor. Further, in the opinion of the Bengal Report, "the politically conscious section of the Muslims feels—not without some justification—that there is a danger of Muslim boys losing their individual outlook

¹ Bengal, page 107.

if they attend general schools which are manned very largely (in some places almost exclusively) by non-Muslims and where the education given is more or less non-Islamic in character".¹

The Hartog Committee suggested in this connection that efforts should be made to provide opportunities for religious instruction, to employ a larger number of Muslim teachers and to reserve a certain number of places for Muslim pupils. Though there are many difficulties inherent in these suggestions, some attempt has been made to provide special facilities for the encouragement of education among Muslims by reserving a certain percentage of places for them in Government institutions, by appointing special inspectors and by awarding free studentships.

(iv) *Education of the Depressed Classes.*

The table below gives the number of pupils belonging to the depressed classes. It does not include figures for Burma, the North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and Assam. In the first three provinces, there are practically no depressed classes as such, while in Assam owing to the very large aboriginal population, it is not possible to classify depressed class pupils separately. In Bengal, the depressed class pupils have not been classified separately but have been grouped with those of the backward classes. As the classification of "backward classes" in that province was changed more than once during the last ten years, the figures for 1932 and 1937 are of doubtful value for comparative purposes.

TABLE CXXVII.
Enrolment of Depressed Class Pupils.

Province.	1931-32.	1936-37.
Madras
Bombay	..	328,445
Bengal	..	80,488
United Provinces	..	436,796
Punjab	..	161,407
Bihar	..	28,870
Central Provinces and Berar	..	43,583
Sind	..	54,479
Orissa	..	3,043
Coorg	..	48,835
Delhi	..	340
Ajmer-Merwara	..	2,375
Bangalore	..	2,379
Other Administered Areas	..	3,525
	865	918
(a) These are figures for 1932-33. Figures for 1931-32 are not available.		
(b) Figures not available.		

N.B.—The figures relating to Bengal for the years 1931-32 and 1936-37 do not bear true comparison, as in the returns for 1936-37, the Mahisya and certain other classes were excluded from the classification of the backward classes.

¹ Bengal, page 108.

29. Large increases in the number of the depressed class pupils in several provinces are encouraging. The prejudices against their admission to the ordinary schools are rapidly dying out and attempts are being made to secure that they are admitted on equal terms with the children of other castes.

Madras has continued its policy "to get the depressed class pupils admitted into the elementary schools already existing in the locality and to open separate schools for them only in places where owing to caste prejudice the existing schools are not easily accessible to them or in places where there are no schools whatsoever.....Scholarships, fee remissions, boarding grants, stipends, allowances for books, etc., continued to be granted to enable deserving students of the depressed classes to prosecute their studies in schools and colleges and to pursue industrial and technical courses of study".¹

Bombay reports that "not only has there been a general awakening among these classes themselves, but the prejudice against them is dying out. Scheduled class pupils are now admitted freely into all but a very few schools and sit in the class alongside other children. And it is only when the school is held in a temple that there is any difficulty about admitting scheduled class pupils. Necessary steps are now being taken to move these schools to other buildings, and, if no other building is available, to other villages".²

In Bengal, "considerable progress has been made by the backward classes in education during the last five years inspite of the financial distress in the country which necessarily hit these desperately poor people very hard....The extension of the franchise and the reservation of a number of seats for the backward classes in the Provincial Legislature created great enthusiasm amongst them for higher education and if larger educational facilities are made available for them, they will undoubtedly make greater progress and take their rightful place in the public life of the province."³

In the United Provinces, the number of depressed class pupils showed a steady improvement from year to year, and this was more apparent in the ordinary vernacular schools than in the special schools for the depressed classes. The increase of 53 per cent. in the enrolment of depressed class pupils attending ordinary schools is significant of the waning of caste prejudices.

In the Punjab, the "segregate" schools for the depressed classes have been practically abolished. "The obstacles of social bigotry and religious prejudice are almost extinct. Untouchability in so far as the schools are concerned, is a matter of the past now. Preferential treatment is given to depressed class children in the matter of training as teachers, and their subsequent employment".⁴ But it is disappointing that despite pecuniary and other facilities there has been a fall of 4,888 in the number of the depressed class pupils. This is attributed to the poverty of the parents to whom the

¹ Madras, pages 140 and 141.

² Bombay, page 215.

³ Bengal, pages 124 and 125.

⁴ Punjab, page 25.

economic value of their children as helpers in their work is great, to the refusal of the parents in quite a large number of areas to get their children recorded as members of the depressed classes in the school registers, and to the adoption of a better-sounding caste-name in some cases. There was, however, a gratifying increase in the number of students reading in arts colleges from 14 in 1932 to 31 in 1937.

In Bihar, the education of the depressed classes made a steady advance for the first four years of the quinquennium, but there has been a slight setback in the last year, for which economic depression may be mainly responsible, although one inspector attributes it to the non-existence, and in some cases to the discontinuance of capitation allowances for teaching pupils of these classes. As a result of the Harijan movement, however, there was a growing demand for special schools in the latter part of the quinquennium. The writer of the Bihar report considers that "there is a real risk that these special schools may be less efficient than ordinary schools, and their pupils would therefore do better to join the latter".¹

In 1933, the Primary Education Committee of Bihar made some recommendations regarding the education of the depressed classes, e.g.,—

- (1) Schools receiving aid from local bodies should, if depressed class pupils are excluded, be removed to other sites.
- (2) Depressed class pupils should be given equal facilities for their lessons with other pupils, i.e., they must be admitted to the school house and be given a seat in front of the teacher and the black-board.
- (3) More adequate facilities should be provided for the education of depressed classes, especially in the form of special schools in areas where a considerable population of these classes is concentrated, but the provision is to be only a temporary measure to last until these children are freely admitted to ordinary schools.

These recommendations were given effect to by Government, as far as feasible, without delay.

In the Central Provinces, there has been an advance in all stages of education of the Harijans, formerly called depressed classes. The reports of the inspectors of schools indicate that the prejudice against depressed class children is rapidly disappearing. The Inspector of Schools, Berar, reports that "there is no longer any need felt for separate schools for depressed class pupils as the Harijan boys are freely allowed to take their place in schools, as in most other public places, without any objection from other communities".²

In Orissa, there were 505 schools mainly intended for depressed classes out of which 10 were for girls. The need for these special schools still continues in some areas, though the prejudice against the admission of depressed class pupils to ordinary schools is weakening.

¹ Bihar, page 138.

² Central Provinces, page 102.

In Delhi, the number of depressed class children declined from 2,905 in 1932 to 2,375 in 1937. "The decrease is explained by the growing unwillingness on the part of parents as well as school teachers to return children as belonging to castes coming under the unhappy designation of the depressed classes. Economic depression is also responsible to some extent for the decrease.....Another difficulty is the provision of teachers belonging to the depressed classes. The reduction in number may also be attributed to some extent to want of sympathy on the part of teachers with the backward classes".¹

In Coorg, the four day schools run specially for the depressed classes were closed during the quinquennium as places were found for pupils and staff alike in the caste schools. But the one night school that existed during the previous quinquennium continued.

30. On the whole, appreciable progress has been made in the education of the depressed classes, but much leeway has still to be made up.

(v) *Education of Aboriginal and Hill Tribes.*

31. Special provision is made for the education of the aboriginal and hill tribes of India.

In Madras, there are 72 schools specially intended for the Kotas, Kurumbas, Irulas, Badagas and Lingayats with a total enrolment of 4,176 pupils as compared with 75 schools with 3,800 pupils in 1931-32. The Badagas are far more educationally advanced than the other hill tribes as their homes are less scattered. There are also 22 Government schools for Chenchus—an aboriginal tribe in the Kurnool district—with a strength of 581 pupils. For the Jatapas, Godabas, Savaras, Khondas and Khondadoras in the Vizagapatam district, there are 29 recognised schools with 846 boys and 101 girls reading in them.

There are 98 schools for the aborigines in the Agency Tracts with a strength of 2,522 pupils. These tribes include the Koyas, Konda Reddis, Savaras, Jatapas, Khondadoras, etc.

Special schools are also maintained for the children of aboriginal tribes living in other parts of the Madras Presidency. There are altogether 15,603 pupils belonging to the aboriginal and hill tribes reading in all classes of institutions compared with 21,546 in 1931-32. The fall in the number is mainly due to the transfer of the Ganjam Agency to the new province of Orissa.

In Bombay, the aboriginal and hill tribes mostly consist of Mahadeo Kolis, Thakars, Katkaris and Bhils. The number of pupils of these tribes increased from 24,006 to 29,105 during the quinquennium. Of these, one was in college, 86 in secondary schools, 28,668 in primary schools, 10 in training institutions, and 340 in other special schools. The number of teachers belonging to these tribes employed in primary schools increased from 315 to 333 during the quinquennium. The desirability of increasing their number has been impressed on all the school boards and this is having the desired effect.

¹ Delhi, page 128.

Of the aboriginal tribes in Bengal, the Santhals are the most educable. Excellent work continues to be done for their education by the American Baptist Mission in Midnapore and by the Methodist Mission at the industrial schools for girls at Bankura and at the Gurn-training School at Sarenga. The Australian Baptists run an excellent School at Biriswi in Mymensingh specially for the Garos, another aboriginal tribe in that district.

During the quinquennium the whole policy of education in the Chittagong Hill Tracts was revised and from the beginning of the next quinquennium special efforts will be made to give the hill tribes an education more suited to their particular needs.

In the Punjab, the number of schools for the education of the Baluch hill tribes has remained stationary as compared with the figures of 1931-32. Three of the primary schools have, however, been raised to the lower middle status. Enrolment in these schools has gone down by 6 from 158 in 1932 to 152 in 1937. The decline in enrolment is ascribed to tribal feuds, which invariably have an adverse effect on admissions. The schools have, however, created a fairly keen interest in education among the Baluch tribes particularly as preference is given to literate youths in recruitment to the Baluch levy and Border Military forces.

In Bihar, the number of pupils from the aboriginal tribes has increased from 75,379 in 1931-32 to 82,733 of whom 14,564 are girls. In the areas where the aboriginal population is large, no need has been felt for any special schools for them, the majority of the ordinary schools being wholly or mainly attended by aboriginal pupils. In such areas, the ordinary inspecting staff includes several persons who are aboriginal by race.

On the other hand, in the Central Provinces, the total number of pupils of the aboriginal hill and criminal tribes fell by 10,848 from 36,445 to 25,597. Lack of progress is attributed largely to the prevailing financial depression. It is particularly unfortunate that in the higher stages there are so few pupils under instruction, viz., only 3 in arts colleges and 48 in high schools. A Commissioner is of opinion that "the aborigines really need more attention than the Harijans (depressed classes), if only because of the widespread extension of the franchise".¹

In Assam, four out of twelve districts are inhabited by hill tribes. The number of pupils in secondary schools in these districts increased from 4,941 in 1931-32 to 6,827 in 1936-37, and in primary schools from 26,037 to 34,097.

The policy of opening Government schools in the Garo and Naga Hills continued in operation, and the number of such schools in each of the districts rose from 139 in 1931-32 to 173 in 1936-37 in the former hill district and from 95 to 103 in the latter. In the Mikir Hills also Government schools are being opened, and arrangements are being made for the production of Mikir text books in Assamese characters.

In Orissa, the total number of aboriginal pupils reading in educational institutions is 18,675, of whom 1,614 are girls. Of these, 5 are in the collegiate stage, 256 in the secondary stage and 18,140 in the primary stage. It is

¹Central Provinces, page 103.

reported that "educational work amongst aborigines is very difficult chiefly because the literary language taught is not and cannot be the language usually spoken—the mother tongue. The work is in the hands of poorly educated teachers and their constant supervision by men of higher qualification is difficult on account of the extent of the areas and the scattered nature of the population."¹

(vi) *Education of Criminal Tribes.*

32. This section deals with the education of criminal tribes for whom special settlements have been set up in some provinces.

In Madras, there are settlements for criminal tribes at five places. In these settlements education is compulsory for all children of school age. In 1936-37, 1,103 pupils—530 boys and 573 girls were under instruction. The Kallar reclamation work in the Tanjore district was wound up, but arrangements were made through local boards and the Karanthai Tamil Sangham for carrying on the education of pupils in the Kallar schools in that district. In the Madura district, the number of Kallar schools was 258 in 1936-37 with an enrolment of 12,424 pupils. Boarding houses are maintained for Kallar pupils and 924 special scholarships and stipends were awarded to them during the quinquennium. 73 fee remissions and 353 boarding grants were also sanctioned for the Koravas, a criminal tribe in the Salem district.

In Bombay, there are several settlements and free colonies for criminal tribes, and day and night schools are maintained by Government for the education of these tribes. These schools are in charge of a special officer called the Backward Class Officer. He reports that "education in these settlements is compulsory. Out of the total population of 8,231 in settlements proper, the number of children attending day and night schools are 1,924 and 228 respectively and out of the total population of 7,212 in free colonies, the corresponding numbers are 1,336 and 210. Thus the number of children attending schools per thousand of the population is 261.3 for settlements and 214.4 for free colonies. In addition 344 children from the settlements and free colonies attend outside primary schools and 15 children attend English schools".²

In Bengal, the Salvation Army maintained a residential school with separate hostels for boys and girls of the Karwal Nats, a criminal tribe, at Nilphamari in the district of Rangpur. The enrolment in 1936-37 was 42 boys and 31 girls as against 35 boys and 32 girls in 1931-32. The total cost to provincial revenues for maintaining the school amounted to Rs. 10,000 during the quinquennium.

In the United Provinces, there are seven settlements for criminal tribes. A vernacular primary school is maintained in each settlement, attended both by boys and girls of these tribes. The progress made is reported to be satisfactory and the girls are found particularly promising. Some of the students have passed out of the settlement schools and are now receiving education in

¹Orissa, page 38.

²Bombay, page 219.

high schools. It is reported that the younger generation of these tribes are now growing up with ideas which have to a very large extent ousted the old criminal tendencies.

In the Punjab, the total number of schools of all grades for criminal tribes has decreased from 59 in 1932 to 57 in 1937, but enrolment has gone up from 2,391 to 2,444. The number of pupils attending ordinary village schools has fallen by 9 per cent. from 6,304 to 5,857. This decline is attributed to economic depression in rural areas, to grants of exemption to members of wandering criminal tribes on a large scale and to the traditional aversion of several tribes towards education. The number of boys and girls of the criminal tribes completing the primary course has, however, advanced by 100 per cent. from 739 in 1931-32 to 1,493 in 1936-37, while that of pupils who passed the middle and matriculation and school leaving certificate examination during the period has gone up by 57 from 47 to 104 (about 120 per cent.). Two students have passed the B.A. examination and one is studying in the LL.B. Class; four boys and one girl are studying in the arts colleges, six boys and two girls are receiving training in the junior vernacular and senior vernacular classes, and one boy in the Senior Anglo-Vernacular Class of the Central Training College, Lahore.

In Bihar, there are 7 schools specially intended for the children of criminal tribes. It is disappointing to note that the total number of pupils declined from 393 in 1931-32 to 255 in 1936-37.

The number of children of criminal tribes under instruction in Orissa was 1,776 out of which 152 were girls. 15 were in secondary stage, 1,517 in the primary stage and 244 in unrecognised schools. Only one school in the district of Cuttack is specially reserved for them and its enrolment is 13 boys and 5 girls.

A colony was established at Qarol Bagh, Delhi, in 1935, one of the objects of which was to reclaim the children of these unfortunate people from their hereditary occupation. 46 pupils of these settlers are receiving the usual instruction in the municipal board school started in the colony. In Sind also, a primary school has been opened by Government at Sukkur for the children of criminal tribes.

CHAPTER X.

MISCELLANEOUS.

(i) Education in the Army.

During the period under review the aims and general organization of education in the army have remained the same. Education is an integral part of the normal training of the soldier and is directed to ensuring that the soldier's mental ability keeps pace with the demands made on his intelligence and adaptability by the steadily increasing complexity of modern military training.

2. In British Units in India, the steady advance made during the past five years in the standard of education is illustrated by the table below.

TABLE CXXVIII.

Percentage of British troops in India holding educational certificates.

Year.	Special.	1st Class.	2nd Class	3rd Class.
1932	0·26	8·57	56·22	30·08
1933	0·27	8·44	60·44	29·17
1934	0·29	8·93	63·55	25·92
1935	0·41	10·42	62·52	25·03
1936	0·44	10·21	65·46	22·47

N.B.—The percentage of uncertificated personnel was 2·7 in 1932 and 1·4 in 1936.

Increasing numbers of British soldiers are now availing themselves of the facilities offered by London University, the Royal Society of Arts and the City and Guilds of London Institute for taking their external examinations in India.

3. On an average, 1,300 British soldiers receive vocational training in India every year. The quality of this has been improved and the cost to the soldier reduced. Training under qualified instructors is now available in many technical as well as non-technical trades, and the level of efficiency attained by the trainees is rising.

In addition 500 men are permitted to attend vocational training centres in the United Kingdom annually. These men remain on the Indian Establishment until they have completed their course, when they are discharged or transferred to the reserve in the United Kingdom. The majority of these men and a number of other British soldiers from India are placed in suitable employment each year through the aid of the vocational training centres, employment exchanges, regimental and other ex-service employment associations. The War Office have issued a revised "Guide to Civil Employment for Regular Soldiers, 1936", which gives full particulars regarding the civil employments available.

4. The Army has continued to provide facilities for the education of the children of British soldiers serving in this country. The curriculum has been modernized and the accommodation improved during the period under review. One of the main problems, which has to be faced, is to ensure continuity in the education of these children. Parents have, in the past, been prone to make use of Army children's schools only when no other school was available. As a result children were, in certain cases, continually changing from an army to a civil school and vice versa. Orders have, however, recently been issued to ensure that British soldiers' children are only permitted to attend civil schools which are approved and that once they have been permitted to attend such schools, they will remain there throughout the period of their father's stay in the station in question. Similarly if a child is withdrawn from an army school in order to attend a civil school, he or she can only be readmitted to the army school with the sanction of the District Commander concerned.

5. The position of the Lawrence Royal Military Schools, which are primarily intended for the children of British soldiers, generally remains the same as stated in the last Review. The standard of education in the Sanawar School, to judge from the results in the various examinations, has been steadily rising.

6. An equally satisfactory state of affairs is evident in the education of Indian soldiers as is shown in the table below.

TABLE CXXIX.

Percentage of Indian troops holding educational certificates.

Year	Special.		1st class.	2nd class.	3rd class.
1932			0.10	5.03	15.80
1933			0.24	1.11	16.50
1934			0.31	5.59	19.10
1935			0.31	5.62	19.51
1936			0.36	6.15	20.81

N.B.—The percentage of men who have passed only the recruit's test or are unclassified was 53 per cent. in 1932 and 42.31 per cent. in 1936.

The demand for education in the Indian Army has continued to grow and with it the number of Indian soldiers who have passed the Indian Army English Certificate has increased proportionately. Since 1932, 2,216 have gained the 1st Class Indian Army English Certificate and 3,163 the 2nd Class.

7. The general principles governing the educational training of Indian troops remain the same as those outlined in the last Review. The need for an increasingly high standard of training for the unit instructor resulted, in 1934, in the institution of a "Senior Instructors' Course" at the Army School of Education. Sixty unit instructors now attend this course each year. The object of these courses is to train unit instructors up to the standard required to teach all subjects for the Indian Army Special Certificate of Education.

8. A recent development in the case of the Indian soldiers, education is the introduction, as a subject for study for the higher certificates, of rural reconstruction and citizenship. It is considered that the soldier, having experienced the benefit of living in healthy surroundings and being aware of the necessity for active measures to combat disease, should prove an excellent agent for spreading these ideas on his return to civil life. It is the Army's intention to train the soldier for this role not only by example but also by precept. By the introduction of teaching in citizenship it is hoped not only to improve the soldier's personal prospects but also to make of him a more useful servant of his country.

9. The provision of an ample supply of trained instructors for both British and Indian troops continues to be the main purpose of the School of Education, Belgaum.

In the case of British non-commissioned officers, the syllabus is based on the system of instruction which is in force at the Army School of Education in England. Approximately one hundred British non-commissioned officers are trained at Belgaum each year.

In the case of the Indian instructor, research and experiment into the best methods of teaching continue and though the existing system is yielding good results, the nature of the problem demands that this research should go on. In the zone of experiment may be classified the examination which is now taking place into the possibilities of teaching "Basic English" to Indian troops. An officer of the Army Educational Corps, who was deputed to attend a course of "Basic English" at the Orthological Institute in London last year, is now on his return experimenting with the system at Belgaum with a view to determining its suitability for introduction into the Indian Army.

10. The three King George's Royal Indian Military Schools at Jhelum, Jullundur and Ajmer are being maintained at their full establishment. The staff of each of these schools has been increased by the addition of a second warrant officer instructor of the Army Educational Corps. The results of the examinations for the First Class and Special Indian Army Certificates of Education show that the educational standard of the pupils is rapidly improving.

Selected boys from these three schools are now admitted into the Kitchener College, Nowgong, by direct nomination, where they undergo a two years intensive course of instruction with a view to their admission as Indian Army cadets to the Indian Military Academy, Dehra Dun. Those of them who successfully complete the course there will eventually receive commissions as officers in the Indian Land Forces.

11. In the Kitchener College an advanced educational course was instituted in 1932. The object of this course was to provide facilities for sixty soldiers of the Indian Army to pass the examination for the Indian Army Special Certificate of Education. This certificate is one of the essential qualifications for nomination by His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief to an Indian Army Cadetship at the Indian Military Academy.

12. The Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College, Dehra Dun continues to train candidates for the Indian Military Academy for eventual commissions in the Indian Land Forces; for the Royal Air Force College, Cranwell for commissions in the Indian Air Force; and for the Royal Indian Navy. Since the inauguration of the Indian Military Academy in 1932, 39 students from the College have gained admission to that institution. The College is now working at its full capacity of 130 cadets and there is a waiting list. The education provided at the College followed the general lines described in the previous reviews, and the Diploma Examination remained in force.

(ii) *Reformatories.*

13. The number of reformatories has increased from 13 to 16 during the quinquennium and their enrolment from 2,294 to 3,215. The expenditure has decreased from Rs. 5,09,424 to Rs. 4,98,732, and the average cost per pupil from Rs. 222·1 to Rs. 155·1. The following table gives the detailed statistics by provinces.

TABLE CXXX.
Reformatory Schools.

Province.	1931-32.				1936-37.			
	Number of schools (place).	Enrol- ment	Expendi- ture.	Avg. cost per pupil	Number of schools (place).	Enrol- ment	Expendi- ture.	Avg. cost per pupil
Madras	4 (Alipuram in Bellary, Chingleput, Ranipet, Madras).	593	Rs. 72,610	122·4	5 (Bellary, Chingleput, Ranipet, Washermanpet, Kupauk).	1,058	Rs. 69,674	66·0
Bombay	3 (Veravda, Byculla, Matunga).	650	Rs. 1,45,184	224·2	3 (Veravda, Byculla, Matunga).	658	Rs. 1,32,335	192·4
Bengal	2 (Bankura, Calcutta).	492	Rs. 72,760	147·9	3 (Alipore, Bankura, Calcutta).	605	Rs. 97,779	161·8
United Provinces	1 (Chunar).	135	Rs. 32,941	239·2	1 (Chunar).	74	Rs. 40,779	531·1
Punjab	1 (Delhi).	127	Rs. 43,475	342·3	1 (Delhi).	107	Rs. 45,077	421·8
Burma	1 (Thayetmyo).	99	Rs. 22,403	226·3	1 (Thayetmyo).	342	Rs. 29,693	86·8
Bihar	1 (Hazaribagh).	223	Rs. 1,00,042	448·8	1 (Hazaribagh).	223	Rs. 81,533	362·3
Central Provinces and Berar	1 (Jubbulpore).	118	Rs. 1,812	15·4
Total	13	2,294	Rs. 5,09,424	222·1	16	3,215	Rs. 4,98,732	155·1

14. In Madras, the number of reformatory and certified schools has increased from 4 to 5 during the quinquennium. Of these, three are under Government management and the other two under private management. These two private schools are classified as girls' schools.

15. In Bombay, there are three principal Certified Industrial Schools which were formerly called reformatory schools, viz., the Yeravda Industrial School maintained by Government, the David Sassoon Industrial School, Matunga, managed by a Committee of Management appointed under the terms of a trust and maintained by Government grants and the Willingdon Boys' Home, Bombay, under the management of the Salvation Army, which is also an aided institution. A new system of release on licence has been introduced in the Yeravda School and the Willingdon Home. Under this system the boys are discharged before the expiry of their period of detention and are placed under the supervision of probation officers in their own districts. Efforts are made to secure employment for them. It is reported that the system has met with considerable success and the fact that the boy is liable to be recalled to the school for any misconduct or breach of the terms of licence on his part acts as a strong inducement for him to settle down to a steady life during the period of licence.

Of the three reformatory schools in Bengal, the buildings and the staff of those in Calcutta and Alipore are reported to be inadequate for the present number of inmates. But in spite of these handicaps, the schools are doing good work.

The Reformatory School in the United Provinces is housed in the historic fort of Chunar. During the quinquennium efforts have been directed towards getting rid of the jail atmosphere and the amenities of the place have been improved.

The Reformatory School in Delhi is managed by the Punjab Government. In Burma, a Borstal Institute is maintained at Thayetmyo.

The Hazaribagh Reformatory School in Bihar is a joint institution for Bihar, Assam, Orissa and to a certain extent for Bengal. Of 225 boys on its rolls on the 31st March 1937, 132 came from Bihar, 73 from Bengal, 10 from Assam and 10 from Orissa.

In the Central Provinces, a Reformatory School is maintained by Government at Jubbulpore. In 1936-37, the provincial Government accorded sanction for the admission to this institution of youthful offenders also from the administered areas in Central India and certain Railway lands in Rajputana and Central India on payment of the cost of maintenance.

16. In addition to general education, instruction is given to the children in these schools in vocational subjects such as carpentry, smithy, weaving, gardening, tailoring, laundry, book-binding, agriculture, dairying, cane work, leather work, etc. A healthy tone is also engendered by organized sports and games, lantern lectures scouting and other recognised methods of character building. Satisfactory progress has generally been maintained by the schools in both literary and vocational education during the quinquennium.

17. The question of after-care of the boys discharged from reformatories is of vital importance, and special attention is paid to this matter.

In 1936-37, out of 212 boys discharged from the three Certified Industrial Schools in Bombay, 105 are reported to have been employed and only one was recommitted. Similarly in the United Provinces, out of 76 boys released during the quinquennium, whose after-career was reported on, 15 were pursuing the trades they had been taught, 24 were engaged in other avocations and only 5 had relapsed into crime. In Bihar, out of 422 boys discharged, 274 were employed and only 26 were reconvicted. In the Punjab, it is reported that 60 per cent. of the boys discharged are leading honest lives.

Several Associations also such as the Bengal After-care Association, the Shephard After-care Home, etc., are doing valuable work by looking after the welfare of the boys discharged from reformatories and by trying to find employment for them.

(iii) Education of defectives.

18. According to the census of 1931, there were at least 108,434 blind and deaf-mute children in India between the ages of five and fifteen. The provision for their education is still hopelessly inadequate. There are only 18 schools for the blind and 24 schools for deaf-mutes with an enrolment of 755 blind pupils and 1,096 deaf-mutes respectively. The provincial statistics are given in the following table.

TABLE CXXXI.
Schools for deaf-mutes and the blind, 1936-37.

Province.	Schools for deaf- mutes.	Schools for the blind.	Total.	Number of pupils.		
				Deaf- mutes.	Blind.	Total.
Madras	5	4	9	438*	151	589
Bombay	5	2	7	183	109	292
Bengal	9	1	10	365	84	449
United Provinces ..	1	3	4	19	96	115
Punjab	2	2	..	79	79
Burma	1	2	3	18	71	89
Bihar	1	2	3	7	96	103
Central Provinces and Berar.	1	1	2	20	32	52
Sind	1	1	..	37	37
Delhi	1	..	1	46	..	46
Total ..	24	18	42	1,096	755	1,851

*Includes blind pupils of the Deaf and Dumb and Blind school, Teynampet, separate figures for whom are not available.

better and more interesting course of training ; at the same time work will be secured for the blind pupils and they will be helped in the marketing of their products.

In Burma, the number of schools for deaf-mutes and the blind has remained stationary at 3, while their enrolment has increased from 69 to 89.

In Bihar, there continue to be the two schools for the blind at Patna and Ranchi. The school at Patna is controlled by a managing committee representing the local community and that at Ranchi is managed by the S. P. G. Mission. The enrolment of these schools has increased from 92 to 96. A school for deaf-mutes was started at Patna in the last year of the quinquennium and has 7 pupils on its rolls.

There is also a school attached to the Leper Asylum at Purulia in Bihar. It had 258 pupils in 1936-37 against 231 in 1931-32.

In the Central Provinces, the two schools, one for deaf-mutes and one for the blind, continued during the quinquennium, and their enrolment increased from 38 to 52. A new building was constructed for the Blind Boys' Institute at Nagpur towards the cost of which Government contributed Rs. 7,040.

In Sind, there is one school for the blind at Karachi with 37 pupils on the roll as compared with 25 pupils in 1931-32. It provides free lodging and board for its pupils.

In Delhi, a school for the deaf and dumb was started by a Committee formed under the auspices of the Delhi Provincial Council of Women in 1931. An Association called the Delhi Association for the Deaf and Dumb was recently constituted and registered. It took over the management of the school in December 1936. The school, which began with only half a dozen pupils in 1931, has now 46 pupils on roll. It has been able to provide a well-planned building of its own with accommodation for 60 pupils. The Government of India contributed Rs. 20,000 towards the erection of this building. It has extensive playgrounds, residential quarters for teachers and a boarding house with provision for 30 pupils.

In Assam, there is no school for the education of defectives. There are, however, 24 scholarships for the training of blind and deaf and dumb children of that province in the Calcutta schools.

19. In addition to general education, these schools teach various useful handicrafts with the object of making their pupils self-supporting. Some progress is noticeable in the education of defective children, but much still remains to be done in this field. The Central Advisory Board of Education, which considered this matter in 1936, recommended that the education of these unfortunate children should not be neglected.

20. The question of providing education for mentally defective children has so far attracted very little attention in India. There are only two schools —the Children's Home, Kurseong, where special methods are adopted for the training of mentally and physically defective European children, and the Bodhana Niketan at Belghoria near Calcutta which is intended for the education of mentally defective Indian children. The former had on its rolls 26 pupils in 1936-37, and the latter 15 pupils.

(iv) Education of adults.

21. The table below indicates the provision made for the education of adults in India. But a large number of institutions shown therein are not strictly schools for adults but are in many cases night schools which are attended also by children.

TABLE CXXXII.

Schools for adults, 1936-37.

Province.	Males.		Females.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Madras	(a) 586	(a) 22,420
Bombay	171	5,777	9	522
Bengal	557	13,963
United Provinces	286	8,103	..	(b)33
Punjab	189	4,975	..	(b)13
Burma	15	1,449
Bihar	(c) 123	(c) 3,166	..	(b)11
Central Provinces and Berar ..	(d) 28	(d) 1,150	2	354
Assam	2	110	..	(b)3
North-West Frontier Province ..	7	(e) 154
Sind	24	715	..	(b)6
Orissa	2	133
Delhi	14	345	..	(b)4
Ajmer-Merwara	12	231
Total ..	2,016	62,691	11	946

(a) Includes 582 night schools with the strength of 22,236.

(b) Reading in institutions for males.

(c) Includes 122 night schools with 3,150 pupils.

(d) Includes 20 night schools with 191 pupils.

(e) Excludes enrolment of one school for which figures are not available.

In Bombay (excluding Sind) there were 143 schools for adults in 1932-33 with an enrolment of 5,660 pupils. The number of schools has increased to 180 in 1937 and that of pupils to 6,299. The increase is attributed to "the present awakening in the cause of adult education due to the impetus given by Government".¹ In this province, several Associations such as the Rural Reconstruction Association of Poona, the City of Bombay Literary Association, the Adult Education League in Poona, the Seva Sadan Society and the Social Service League in Bombay are also doing substantial work in the direction of adult education. The Social Service League maintains five main centres exclusively for the benefit of women. The activities of the Seva Sadan Society are also directed towards the social and educational uplift of Indian women and it maintains a number of schools at important centres in the Central Division of the province. The advanced night classes at Kirkee, conducted by the Alegonkar Brothers, cater for factory employees.

The United Provinces also show an appreciable increase both in the number of schools and their enrolment. The number of schools has risen from 233 to 286 and that of pupils from 6,114 to 8,136. It is, however, reported that these schools do not attract the adults, and the majority of those who attend are boys.

In Madras, the number of schools decreased from 3,322 to 586 during the quinquennium and their enrolment from 98,761 to 22,420. The rapid and continuous reduction in the number of schools during the last decade has been due "to the policy of weeding out bogus and ill-working night schools which came into existence as a by-product of the policy of expansion during the previous decade. The average number of pupils per night school however rose from 30 to 38 during the quinquennium, which marks noteworthy progress in the increase of larger and economical schools".²

In Bengal also, there has been a rapid and continuous decrease both in the number of schools for adults and their strength. There are now 557 schools with an enrolment of 13,963 pupils as against 1,089 schools and 26,804 pupils in 1932.

The Punjab shows a decrease of 396 in the number of schools and of 7,812 in that of pupils. This abnormal decrease is reported to be partly due to the departmental order of 1932 that grant would not be paid to district boards for more than 10 adult schools per district.

In Bihar also, the number of night schools is declining. During the five years it fell from 175 with 4,078 pupils to 122 with 3,150 pupils. It is reported that their general reputation has been so poor that it is not surprising that they die out for want of popular support. One feature common to all the schools is that, on an average, only about 50 per cent. of the students in them are adults. The Night School Association, Muzaffarpur, is, however, doing good work as a supervising agency.

¹ Bombay, page 233.

² Madras, pages 91-92.

In the Central Provinces, the scheme drawn up originally in 1928 for the establishment of 50 schools for adults had again to be postponed owing to financial stringency. There are at present 30 schools for adults (including 20 night schools) with an enrolment of 1,504.

22. Work in night schools maintained for adults continues to be largely experimental, and the efforts which have been made in this direction have met with only qualified success. For example, the United Provinces consider that "night schools of the present type will do little to liquidate illiteracy".¹ They suggest that "seasonal schools, which only function when agricultural operations are slack, are the only type which will have any chance of succeeding as the labourer after his day's work is too tired to attend school"¹, and primary school teachers employed in night schools are also "tired and do not make much effort".¹

The writer of the Punjab Report also states that the practice of working through night schools and through teachers, who also worked during the day, impeded the advance of adult education. In his opinion, "the real causes of the decline appear among others to be : lack of public interest ; application of unsuitable methods of instruction, viz., those used in the case of immature minds ; unsuitable courses of instruction ; non-existence of appropriate literature for, the up-keep of adults' interest in reading ; collective teaching and placing the adult in the hands of teachers who are ignorant of adult psychology and who are too tired after a hard day's work in school to do anything substantial later".²

23. In the Punjab a new experiment was, however, started in 1937 and is being tried in the Mission School at Moga. It is based on the technique and psychological approach of Dr. Laubach's method of "Each one teach one". The main features of this method are its basis in a sound psychology of the adult mind, an interesting method with suitable instructional matter and the easy and inexpensive teaching of one individual by another. It is reported that the results of this experiment in a dozen different centres are very encouraging.

24. In some provinces, adult education is carried on by voluntary effort but the problem is too serious to be left entirely to voluntary workers. Whilst voluntary effort should be encouraged, a systematic campaign sponsored by Government should be launched. The preparation of such a campaign will necessitate a consideration of many points—teachers, both voluntary and paid, supervisors, times of meeting, premises, methods of procedure and control, text-books, and finally cost. For village schools, in which normally adult classes will be held, libraries of suitable books are needed. The organization of these libraries and perhaps the experiment of "travelling" libraries will depend on local conditions, available funds and other factors. These are matters which need the earnest attention of education departments in each province, if the problem of adult education is to be seriously tackled.

¹ United Provinces, page 81.

² Punjab, page 19.

(v) *Libraries.*

25. University libraries are steadily expanding. The table below indicates the size of these libraries.

TABLE CXXXIII.

University libraries.

University.	Number of volumes.	
	1932.	1937.
Calcutta	102,096	173,446
Bombay	41,172	(a)
Madras	74,592	97,343
Punjab	75,434	78,225
Allahabad	80,993	94,177
Benares Hindu	64,635	94,632
Mysore	20,663	28,677
Patna	12,827	23,000
Osmania	29,725	(a)
Aligarh Muslim	25,190	(a)
Rangoon	14,142	20,344
Lucknow	43,672	55,271
Dacca	78,917	94,056
Delhi	12,005	21,754
Nagpur	18,807	29,219
Andhra	9,086	32,300
Annamalai	31,032	51,584

(a) Figures not available.

The Calcutta University spent Rs. 55,289 during the years 1935 and 1936 on the purchase of books for its library. New premises were also built for the library, and there is now a well-lighted and well-ventilated reading room with seating accommodation for about 300.

The Madras University Library was also provided with a new building in 1936, and the location of books in the stock room has been planned with regard to the importance of and frequency in demand in various subjects and the convenience of the readers and the staff.

The Punjab University now spends a sum of about Rs. 50,000 a year on its library.

The Allahabad University Library receives an annual grant of Rs. 10,000 from Government. A special non-recurring grant of Rs. 3,000 during the year 1936-37 was also sanctioned by the Executive Council of the University.

The Benares Hindu University spent Rs. 92,879 on the purchase of books and periodicals during the quinquennium. With the housing of the University library in a commodious building costing Rs. 2 lakhs, which was the generous gift of His Highness the Gaekwar of Baroda, it has been possible to start an Art Gallery and a Numismatic Section in connection with the Library.

The Patna University Library Building has been extended by the addition of two wings at a cost of about Rs. 18,000. The Bayley Memorial Collection, which is open to the public, has been accommodated in the University Library.

The Rangoon University Library has acquired besides other books a complete set of the Narthang Edition of the Tibetan Tripitaka (both Tanjur and Kanjur) at a cost of Rs. 3,000 and a set of "Genera Insectorum" in 33 volumes at a cost of Rs. 5,177. A sum of Rs. 12,553 was spent during the year 1936-37 on the purchase of books.

In the Lucknow University Library a new section known as the Bonarji Library has been opened to provide text-books for poor students as well as books of general cultural interest. This is the result of the generosity of Mr. D. N. Bonarji, who has made an endowment of Rs. 11,000 for its maintenance.

The amount spent on the purchase of books for the Dacca University Library was Rs. 95,000 during the quinquennium. An extension to the library building was also made.

During the quinquennium, expenditure on the Delhi University Library has increased from Rs. 6,635 in 1931-32 to Rs. 14,011 in 1936-37.

In the Nagpur University, a sum of Rs. 14,579 was spent on the purchase of books during 1936-37.

In the Andhra University on an average a sum of Rs. 25,000 was allotted for the purchase of books and periodicals every year during the period under review. A new and well-equipped building was also constructed for the University Library.

The Annamalai University Library is also now housed in a new building specially designed and well equipped with halls and reading rooms. The annual allotment for books and periodicals is about Rs. 25,000.

University Libraries are now being increasingly used by the general body of students as distinct from research workers. The system of lending books to eligible persons in the mofussil (*i.e.*, outside Madras City) has now been introduced in the Madras University Library.

26. Libraries are also maintained in all the colleges. But, speaking generally, they vary considerably in size according to the size and importance of the colleges themselves. As stated in the last Review, the library of the Presidency College, Calcutta, has a fine collection of books and that of the Sydenham College of Commerce, Bombay, possesses perhaps the finest collection of economic and commercial publications in India. Not many colleges, however, own large or up-to-date collections of books and the whole question of college libraries needs attention.

27. School libraries are still generally unsatisfactory. Many of them are inadequately supplied with books, and the provision of new books has been made more difficult by the general lack of money. Improvements are, however, reported in certain provinces.

In Madras, class libraries were formed in some schools and it is hoped that this policy may be widely extended.

In Bengal also, the Director of Public Instruction has ordered that the school libraries in the Government schools should be split up into class room libraries to be kept in the classes in charge of the class teachers. It is reported that this has had some effect in inducing the boys to use the library more frequently.

In Bombay, a number of school boards are now realizing the importance of school libraries and are beginning to supply their primary schools with books for supplementary reading.

In the United Provinces, inspectors have made efforts to induce schools to buy reference and illustrated books, while more attention has been given to the provision of books for juveniles and books in the vernacular. Some boards have been able to make small additions to school libraries.

In the Punjab, libraries attached to village schools continue to be useful in checking a relapse into illiteracy and in providing the literate villager with interesting reading matter.

In the Central Provinces, Government made grants amounting to Rs. 2,431 during the quinquennium to 22 village libraries, which are maintained in vernacular middle schools.

The N. W. F. Province reports that libraries attached to secondary schools, both vernacular and anglo-veracular, have been very much improved. The institution of class libraries, mainly in high schools, has proved very useful. A liberal supply of periodicals and journals has been given to all schools and it is satisfactory to record that very good use has been given of these both by boys and teachers.

28. There are some libraries which are doing useful work in the field of oriental research.

The Government Oriental Manuscripts Library, Madras, maintains an excellent collection of manuscripts. During the quinquennium 308 new manuscripts were acquired.

main collection of books housed in Gorton Castle, Simla, to New Delhi, and consequently additional accommodation and shelves were provided to receive the entire collection in the Library at New Delhi. The Library is located in the Imperial Secretariat Building. As stated in the last Review, a special feature of the Library is its collection of official publications and blue books relating to India and oriental countries.

31. The Library of the Central Advisory Board of Education possesses an excellent collection of books on educational topics, periodicals issued in and outside India and reference books of education. It is intended mainly for the use of educational authorities and those interested in education. It is situated in the Imperial Secretariat Building, New Delhi. Books may be consulted by any one interested without payment of any fee.

(vi) *Text-Book Committees.*

32. The table below furnishes information regarding the number of books examined and approved during the quinquennium by Text-Book Committees.

TABLE CXXXIV.

Number of books approved by Text-Book Committees during the quinquennium 1932-37.

Province.		Books examined.	Books approved.
Madras	9,314	7,169
Bombay	1,283 (a)	1,092(a)
Bengal	7,447	3,248
Punjab	(b)	384
Bihar	3,928	1,973
Central Provinces and Berar	997(c)	579(c)
North-West Frontier Province	1,642	1,098
Sind	76(a)	63(a)
Delhi	2,318	1,223

N.B.—Figures for some provinces are not available.

(a) For 1936-37 only.

(b) Figures not available.

(c) From May 1935 to March 1937 only, as previous records were lost in the fire of May 1935.

The number of members of the Text-Book Committee in Madras continued to be 40 till 1935, when after the formation of the new province of Orissa, to which part of the Madras Presidency was transferred, it was reduced to 39. The rules for the working of the Committee were revised with the consent of

Government with a view to removing certain defects in practice and to making them sufficiently comprehensive to give authoritative guidance where such guidance was needed.

In Bombay, there are five School Book Committees to assist the Director of Public Instruction in determining what books should be sanctioned. The Provincial School Book Committee, of which the Director of Public Instruction is President, considers books proposed for use in secondary schools, while the Primary School Book Committees, of which there are four, deal with books in the different regional languages, viz., Marathi, Gujarati, Kanarese and Urdu.

In Bengal, certain important changes were introduced in the procedure for the examination of the books submitted for approval to the Provincial Text Book Committee. Formerly it had been the practice to call for text-books on all subjects for primary and secondary schools in a single year but experience showed that members found it difficult to examine thoroughly all books for the schools in one year. It was therefore decided to call for books for examination in a four-year cycle by rotation.

In the United Provinces, the Provincial Text-Book Committee was abolished in 1929. The Board of High School and Intermediate Education prescribes text-books for all classes from class V to class XII, while the Board of Vernacular Education deals with text-books for vernacular schools and the primary classes of anglo-veracular schools. There is also a Special Maktab Text-Book Committee which deals with text-books for maktabas.

In the Punjab, as a result of a resolution passed in the Legislative Council, Government appointed in 1934 an Enquiry Committee to examine the existing system of prescribing and providing books for use in schools. One of the recommendations of the Committee led to the abolition of the Text-Book Committee and its replacement by the Punjab Advisory Board for Books. This Board comprises 40 members, including four *ex-officio* members, viz., the Director of Public Instruction as the Chairman, the Deputy Directress of Public Instruction, the Principal of the Central Training College, and the Secretary ; four from among the members of the Legislative Council ; four nominees of the Hon'ble the Minister for Education ; eleven members of the Education Department ; six from the University and eleven from the members of the teaching staffs of the privately managed institutions in the province. Some recommendations of the Committee have already been accepted by Government while others are yet under consideration. Due to uncertainties involved in the evolution of the new Board, most of the activities of the Text-Book Committee had either to be curtailed or suspended. Such activities, however, as the free display of educational films in schools and colleges, the preparation of maps and the free distribution of books translated by the Committee were continued as before.

During the quinquennium, the Text-Book Committee in Burma, in addition to its ordinary work of selecting text-books suitable for schools, considered and approved six new projects for the production of text-books in Burmese.

In Bihar, there was some change in the constitution of the Text-Book Committee on account of the separation of Orissa from the 1st April 1936,

the total number of ordinary members being reduced from 18 to 16. An important decision taken by Government with regard to the approval of text-books for primary schools is that in future no Hindi or Urdu books should, without the special permission of the Director of Public Instruction, be approved by the Committee for use in any subject at the lower primary stage, or in any subject other than literature at the upper primary stage, which is not as far as possible one book printed in both the Urdu and Nagri scripts.

In the Central Provinces, books meant for use in vernacular middle and anglo-vernacular schools are examined by the various Committees of Courses appointed by the High School Education Board. The Text-Book Committee deals with books intended for use in schools other than middle and anglo-vernacular schools. It is felt that the existing machinery is out of date and in consequence the reorganization of the constitution of the Committee is under consideration by the provincial Government.

At the beginning of the quinquennium, there were three main Text-Book Committees in Assam, viz., the Provincial, the Surma Valley and the Assam Valley Committees. From 1936 these three have been amalgamated into a Central Text-Book Committee consisting of 10 officials and 10 non-officials with the Director of Public Instruction as President. The new Committee has already undertaken some valuable work such as the preparation and production of school text-books, dictionaries and books of juvenile interest, of which there is a serious shortage especially in Assamese. The other Text-Book Committees are those of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills and the Garo Hills. They are practically official bodies. Text-books for the other Hill areas are arranged by the Director in consultation with the District Officers.

In the North-West Frontier Province, the Text-Book Committee consists of 15 members, together with the Director of Public Instruction, who is *ex-officio* President and the Registrar of Departmental Examinations, who is *ex-officio* Secretary. All books received are examined by sub-committees each consisting of 5 or more members. Up to the end of 1935 the number of the sub-committees used to be nine. In 1936, it was decided to reduce the number to six.

In Sind, the Vernacular School Board Committee, formed under the Bombay Presidency rules, continues to function. It considers books in Sindhi only. It has 10 members with the Director of Public Instruction as President.

In Orissa, a temporary Advisory Text-Book Committee was set up in 1936 with the Director of Public Instruction as President, pending the formation of a properly constituted Text-Book Committee. It consisted of 5 members from Orissa on the old Bihar and Orissa Text-Book Committee, two persons from South Orissa nominated by Government, one Bengali and one Muslim nominated by Government to represent the interests of the two communities, and the Personal Assistant to the Director who was *ex-officio* Secretary.

In Delhi, the courses of study for the High School and School Leaving Certificate Examinations are prescribed by the Board of Secondary Education, while the Text-Book Committee recommends books for use in the middle and primary classes.

(vii) *Oriental Studies.*

33. Provision for oriental studies is made in many types of institutions. The courses in ordinary schools and colleges include the study of classical languages (Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian), while the universities make provision for advanced studies and research in oriental languages. There are also a large number of special institutions which impart instruction in these languages. They include madrassahs, maktabs, mulla schools, Quran schools, Pali schools, tuls and pathshalas. The education given in most of these is of an elementary character.

34. There are also advanced institutions which specialize in these studies.

In Madras, there are 18 oriental colleges for higher education in Sanskrit. Of these, 13 are aided, 4 unaided and one is under the management of a local body. The enrolment in these colleges increased from 575 in 1931-32 to 587 in 1936-37. There are also two Sanskrit colleges for women with 15 students.

In Bombay, there is a Sanskrit College at Poona which was opened by the Poona Sanskrit Association in 1929 with the object of providing instruction in the ancient *shastras* on traditional lines. There were 20 students at the end of the quinquennium. The Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona, the K. R. Cama Oriental Institute, Bombay, and the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society are doing original research in oriental learning. The Bhandarkar Institute has undertaken, for the last 19 years, the important enterprise of preparing a critical edition of the *Mahabharata*. The Cama Institute specializes in Iranian literature and awards fellowships and prizes for research work, essays and lectures. The Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society published during the quinquennium five volumes of its journal containing a number of articles of interest to scholars. The Mimansa Vidyalya, Poona, specializes in the "critical study of the Mimansa Shastra and other Vedic requisites forming a useful asset towards the encouragement of original research," while the Indian Historical Research Institute carries on original research in historical subjects. The Bharat Itihas Samshodhak Mandal possesses rare collections of manuscripts, records, daftars in Marathi, Sanskrit and Persian bearing on the economic and administrative history of the Deccan for the last four hundred years. During the quinquennium, a number of useful historical documents in Persian and Marathi were published in the Quarterly Journal of the Mandal.

The Historical Museum, Satara, also possesses an excellent collection of manuscripts, historical prints, drawings, pictures, etc. A number of books, coins and pictures were added to the Museum during the quinquennium.

In Bengal, the Oriental Department of the Sanskrit College, which is maintained by Government, teaches Veda, Vedanta, Smriti, Nyaya and Vyakaran. There were 144 students in the Oriental Department in 1936-37 against 105 students in 1931-32. The Bengal Sanskrit Association and the East Bengal Saraswat Samaj are doing excellent work for the promotion of Sanskrit studies. The Calcutta Madrasah which was the first educational institution to be established by the British in India, offers facilities for advanced studies in Islamic culture. It was founded in 1781 by Warren Hastings and is maintained by Government.

In the United Provinces, the Sanskrit College, Benares, which was started by the East India Company in 1791 and has had many distinguished Sanskrit scholars connected with it, continued to be a centre of advanced studies and research work. The number of students increased from 610 in 1931-32 to 653 in 1936-37 and from 55 to 65 in the Anglo-Sanskrit Department. Beside printed books, 1,232 Sanskrit manuscripts, including many rare and important Sanskrit works, were added to the library of the College.

The oriental institutes at Lucknow and Deoband continued to impart instruction of a high standard in Arabic and Islamic culture. The Hindustani Academy which was founded in 1926 by Government to preserve, foster and develop Hindi and Urdu literature, maintains a literary staff to compile and edit books and also awards prizes to encourage the production of original works.

In the Punjab, an Oriental College is maintained by the University with the main object of promoting the advanced study of Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian and such modern Indian languages as the Syndicate may prescribe. The number of students on the roll on the 31st March 1937 was 152.

In Bihar, the Dharma Samaj Sanskrit College at Muzaffarpur is managed by Government. The number of pupils in the College rose from 268 in 1931-32 to 504 in 1936-37. This phenomenal increase in the roll is due partly to the provision of enlarged hostel accommodation and partly also to a growing appreciation of the importance of Sanskrit learning. The Madrasah Islamia Shamsul Huda at Patna, which is also managed by Government, has a record of steady improvement during the past five years in respect of its enrolment, staff and buildings. The number of students increased from 278 in 1931-32 to 327 in 1936-37.

The Central Provinces and Berar Literary Academy, which was founded in 1928-29 with the object of preserving, fostering and developing the three main languages and literatures of the province, viz., Hindi, Marathi and Urdu, is progressing well. Its funds have been devoted chiefly to the payment of honoraria to authors of original works. A small library has also been started.

In Assam, there are a Government Sanskrit College and a Government Madrasah. In 1933-34 high madrasah courses were introduced in the latter institution.

In Orissa, there is one Sanskrit College at Puri maintained by Government with 157 students on the roll. There is also another Sanskrit College maintained by the Maharaja of Parlakimedi and aided by Government. It has 132 students on the rolls. Of the madrassahs in Orissa, the Madrasah Sultania at Cuttaek is the only one which carries the study of Islamic culture to an advanced stage.

(viii) Moral and Physical Training.

35. There has been no appreciable improvement in the direction of moral instruction in schools.

The Madras Report observes that "moral instruction as it is organized in secondary schools is not much of a success and if it is to prove an effective means of moral training, it should receive more serious attention than is bes-

towed on it at present Moral instruction which fails to develop a predilection for right conduct and to inspire a faith in moral forces is a mere waste of breath and time. It is, however, hoped that the intrinsic value of the subject will be better realized and the teaching of it will be better organized, so that moral instruction may serve as a true foundation of the pupils, character during its formative stage at school. The results so far achieved tend to prove that moral instruction is of little value unless it is based on the essentials of religion.”¹

The Assam Report also states that “ it is worse than useless to attempt to inculcate morals by lectures in the school room. Such instruction should be given at home or by religious instructors in church, mosque, temple or namghar ”.²

The every day life of a school, however, should provide the teacher with ample opportunities for inculcating the fundamental qualities of honesty, truthfulness and brotherliness, and this incidental instruction can be supplemented by special lessons based on stories drawn from the literature of all religions. “ A teacher who has a genuine faith in moral values and a real enthusiasm for inculcating them cannot fail to make the subject interesting to pupils.”¹

36. If little stimulus has been given to moral instruction during the period under review, considerable progress has been made in physical training. Games have been better organized, new methods of physical training have been introduced, and interest has been aroused in the indigenous games. The subject has received careful attention in rural as well as in urban areas, and there has also been a marked improvement in the organization of games for girls.

In Madras, a number of schemes for the acquisition and improvement of playing fields were submitted and liberal provision was made by Government in the way of playground grants and subsidies, though in some years financial difficulties prevented some Managing Bodies from taking full advantage of them. Adequate plots of Government land were also assigned for use as playgrounds. Other improvements were the gradual replacement of drill-masters of the old type by properly trained physical training instructors, the growing realization on the part of educational institutions of the need for providing physical activities for all instead of for a few star performers only and the perceptible improvement in the spirit displayed in inter-school competitions as a result of the increasing realization of the value of playing the game apart from winning it. Inter-collegiate tournaments in the major games were also organized under the auspices of the University. The conduct of these tournaments is in the hands of six local divisional organizations in the chief centres of the province. A sum of Rs. 6,000 is annually provided for running the tournaments.

In Bombay also, there has been a great improvement in the attitude of the public and of the managing bodies of schools towards physical education and games. There are now very few secondary schools which do not make provi-

¹ Madras, page 76.

² Assam, page 69.

sion of some kind or another for physical education. In many schools definite periods are set aside in the course of the week both for games and for Swedish drill or gymnastics, and this is true of all Government schools.

In Bengal, though financial stringency did not permit the undertaking of schemes of physical education, it was possible to build up a solid foundation upon which future schemes for the introduction of well-devised courses of physical education in the province can be based. An outstanding feature of the period was the growth of public opinion in favour of physical education. This change in the outlook was due in a great measure to the excellent work done by the Students Welfare Committee of the Calcutta University. Revised syllabuses in physical training were issued for schools. A Physical Training Centre was set up by Government where university graduates could take up a course of physical training lasting for one year. It was contemplated that the graduates trained at this Centre might combine the duties of academic teaching and of physical training in schools. It is reported that the Centre is fulfilling a very important function and the necessity for putting it on a permanent basis is now generally recognised. The All-Bengal Teachers' Association also organized from 1932 short vacation courses of physical training for high school teachers in order to meet the demands of the schools, and about 80 teachers were trained each year. The University of Calcutta appointed an Organizer of Physical Education. As a result of this, inter-collegiate games and athletic competitions were better organized than in the past. The University Rowing Club did good work and made rowing increasingly popular amongst Calcutta students.

In the United Provinces, the three Superintendents of Physical Training have continued to train teachers in new methods of physical training and special attention has been paid to their adoption in rural schools. An innovation has been the sending of women teachers to the Y. W. C. A. course of physical education in Calcutta, who on their return will train other women teachers in methods suitable for girls schools. The Lucknow Christian College has a Physical Training College attached with a two years' course. Its products experience no difficulty in finding employment in various schools. The Seva Bharat Mandal, Benares, also trains teachers in physical exercises, concentrating chiefly on the indigenous system. The Lucknow Inter-Schools and Colleges Athletic Association has also done very useful work in the matter of improving the standard of games generally. The Education department has prepared a detailed syllabus of physical training exercises for boys from 6 to 14 years old in the vernacular on the lines of the English Board of Education physical training syllabus and is proposing to publish a syllabus for gymnastics for older boys.

In the Punjab, physical training has now been made compulsory for all intermediate students by the university and all colleges are required to employ one or more properly qualified physical training supervisors. In the schools the new type of physical training instructor has already made his influence felt. Games, during and after school hours, are organized more carefully and systematically. Inter-school tournaments have been revived in some districts and a large number of refresher courses for vernacular teachers have been held

by the assistant district inspectors of schools for physical training. These courses, followed by regular and intensive supervision, have brought about a noticeable change in the physical training work in rural schools. Almost every village school has now a teacher with some knowledge of modern physical training methods.

In Burma, there has been marked progress in physical education in anglo-vernacular and English schools and some progress in vernacular schools also. In addition to the Rangoon Schools Athletic Association, which was in existence at the beginning of the quinquennium, eleven Schools Athletic Associations have been formed in the districts. Government has now under consideration a scheme for the creation of a special inspectorate for physical training for the whole province. One Deputy Inspector and one Deputy Inspectress for Physical Training were appointed in 1936.

In the Rangoon University an excellent swimming pool was completed in 1936, towards the cost of which the University gave Rs. 28,932 while the constituent colleges contributed the balance.

In Bihar, all the *zila* schools have qualified drill masters, but the work in private schools is generally unsatisfactory. The four physical training instructors, one attached to each of the four secondary training schools in the province, continued to do good work throughout the quinquennium.

In the Central Provinces, the Nagpur University introduced a scheme of compulsory physical education by which every male student studying for the intermediate examination was required to pursue, for at least one year, an approved course of physical instruction. In order to enable the colleges to take full advantage of the scheme, the University appointed, for the first two years of its operation, three physical instructors. All the Government high schools and normal schools, with a few exceptions, are also provided with physical training instructors. In fact, physical education has received special attention in all schools. The old drill is gradually being replaced by physical exercises prepared to suit boys at different stages of growth.

In Assam, physical training has been made compulsory for teachers under 40 years of age, but many who have exceeded this age have volunteered for training and become proficient. The main advance during the quinquennium has been made in regard to organized games taught in connexion with physical training. It is reported that inter-school, inter-madrassah, inter-valley and divisional tournaments are now the order of the day in the province.

In the North-West Frontier Province, whole time physical instructors are employed in all anglo-vernacular schools. Trained bandmasters have also been employed in some schools for the purpose of drilling boys to the accompaniment of bag-pipe and fife-bands.

In Sind, physical training has been made compulsory for students of the intermediate class in arts and science colleges. Drill and physical training is also a compulsory item in the curriculum of the primary section of English-teaching schools. The department encourages similar training in the upper class also.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Boy Scout, 1937—contd.

Province.	Number of groups.	Total of all ranks.
Delhi	73	2,035
Baluchistan	13	909
Bangalore	27	1,007
Rajputana	33	960
Central India	23	715
Western India States Agency	42	1,617
Eastern States Agency	145	7,862
Hyderabad British Administered Areas	51	1,228
Indian States	1,870	51,701
Total	11,443	340,084

N.B.—Figures for Burma and Sind are not available.

Most provincial Governments give annual grants to the Boy Scouts Associations to carry on the work of organizing the movement in their respective areas.

38. In the United Provinces, while the ordinary Boy Scouts Association is a branch of the all-India body, the Seva Samiti Boy Scouts Association is practically confined to that province. The strength of the Seva Samiti boy scouts including cubs and rovers was 85,398 in 1937. It is reported that the healthy spirit of rivalry between these two associations continued without proving prejudicial to the interests or efficiency of either.

39. The progress made in the scouts movement in India during 1932-37 is striking. The fact that the numbers have gone up so rapidly clearly shows that boys and their parents appreciate the value of outdoor recreation and games, the scope for the study of nature and the training in character which the movement affords to its member. The record of the social service rendered by the scouts is commendable. The work done by the Punjab boy scouts during the earthquake in Quetta and by the Bihar scouts during the earthquake in their province will find a place in the history of this country. The public also have now begun to appreciate their services and are learning to rely on their help.

(x) Girl Guides.

40. Great progress has also been made in the girl guides movement. In 1932, the total membership was 27,557 ; by the end of 1937 it reached 40,750.

TABLE CXXXVI.
Girl Guides, 1937.

Provinces and States.	Companies.	Companiests.		Rangee Copya.	Cadet Copya.	Extem. Copya.	Secretaries.	Guiders.	Bluebirdes.	Rabgeers.	Caderets.	Extem. Guides.	Lone Guides.	provincial Totals. Personnel.	
		15	17	
1. Assam	1	797
2. Baluchistan	12	11	457
3. Bengal	80	5	3	3	3,645
4. Bihar	20	34	3	3	1,388
5. Central India States	182	255	10	7	7,926
6. Chittagong	5	6	311
7. Dacca	40	37	10	2,001
8. Dhubiganj	2	5	142
9. Delhi	11	7	1	1	527
10. Eastern States	10	20	608
11. Hyderabad	45	62	..	7	1,623
12. Junagadh	5	6	220
13. Kashmir	1	2	74
14. Madras	167	105	26	14	6,781
15. Mysore	39	23	3	1,341
16. Orissa	10	7	..	1	487
17. Punjab	93	117	..	2	10	4,870
18. Rajputana	23	20	..	1	1,061
19. Sind	11	22	..	1	630
20. United Provinces	121	113	5	4	5,849
21. Western India	12	2	103
	899	982	72	58	8	238	175	2,990	17,553	17,373	1,112	1,139	130	..	40,750

The girl guides movement is spreading throughout all sections of the community. There are school and college companies, purdah companies, companies in leper colonies, in schools for blind and crippled children and in borstal institutions. The spirit of service and true citizenship among girls is fostered wherever the movement takes root.

Progress has also been made in training Indian guiders, one of the most important aspects of the movement. Almost equally important is the translation of guide literature and it is gratifying to note that practically all the necessary books are now obtainable in the more important languages of the country. Several new books have also been written and published in India to meet the special needs of Indian girls.

(xi) Medical inspection of school children.

41. The work of medical inspection of school children has been much handicapped on account of financial stringency.

As a measure of retrenchment, with effect from the beginning of the quinquennium, the Madras Government directed the discontinuance of grants from provincial funds towards the cost of medical inspection. Government have, however, been considering for some time past the question of introducing, as early as possible, an intensive system of medical inspection with provision for following-up work though satisfactory and practicable arrangements have yet to be framed.

In Bombay, on account of lack of funds, regular medical inspection involving the keeping of records of weight, height, chest measurements, etc. cannot be held either in every Government secondary school or in every aided school. A number of recognised schools, however, do conduct regular medical inspections of their pupils and maintain the necessary records. Medical inspection of students in colleges is conducted every year under the auspices of the University.

In Bengal, very little was done during the quinquennium in regard to any organized scheme of medical examination and supervision. Though the scheme drawn up for introducing such a system in Government high schools and high madrassahs outside Calcutta was administratively approved by Government, it was not possible for them to find the requisite funds.

The United Provinces have, however, established a carefully planned school health service. School health officers exist in all the big cities of the province and in smaller municipalities the municipal medical officer of health performs these functions. In rural areas, where the district health scheme is in operation, as it now is in 34 districts, the district medical officers of health act as school health officers. This scheme which was originally meant for pupils in anglo-vernacular schools only is now being, especially in towns,

extended to all school children. In five large cities school clinics have been established for the treatment of pupils, where free treatment is given. The scheme has been a success and it is proposed to extend the system of school clinics and to include provision for girls also.

In the Punjab also attention was given during the quinquennium to the medical inspection and treatment of school children. The Simla Municipal Committee has made comprehensive arrangements in this matter. Some high schools in the province have a well-organized system of medical inspection as well as a medical fund for the upkeep and equipment of the school dispensary. To this fund each boy above the primary standard contributes two annas per month. Dispensaries containing well-known non-poisonous medicines have been organized from the school Red Cross Fund in some rural secondary schools also.

In Burma, medical examination of the resident students of the university was introduced in the year 1934-35. But the number of schools in which medical inspection is provided has fallen from 176 to 17 on account of the withdrawal of Government grants for this purpose since 1931. Towards the end of the quinquennium, however, proposals were submitted to Government to revive the scheme for the medical inspection of school children.

In Bihar, the system of medical inspection of high schools remained the same as in the preceding quinquennium, a school medical officer and an assistant school medical officer being appointed to look after the high schools of each division. As regards the medical inspection of pupils of middle schools, Government issued necessary instructions to all district boards in 1935. Many of the boards have arranged for the medical inspection with the help of the staff already employed; certain boards have arranged for the medical inspection of the pupils in primary schools also.

In the Central Provinces, the Nagpur University appointed medical officers in 1934 to conduct the medical inspection of university students in all the affiliated colleges. In Government anglo-vernacular schools also a regular system of medical inspection of all boys is maintained. It is reported that private schools have also begun to follow this system, but most of these schools are handicapped by lack of funds.

In Assam, all Government high schools, except Shillong, were periodically inspected by medical officers, but it is reported that in many cases the inspection was perfunctory.

In the North-West Frontier Province, the scheme of medical inspection of school children remained confined to boys' schools located in certain municipal areas, though in 1933 it was extended to two more towns. School dispensaries have been established in some high schools.

In Sind, there is no arrangement for medical inspection in most schools.

In Orissa also, no provision existed for the medical inspection of school students in South Orissa till the 1st April 1936. The system in vogue in North Orissa was then extended to cover the whole province.

In Delhi, the work of medical inspectors of schools until the end of the year 1936 was confined to medical examination of school children twice a year. The treatment of defects was left largely to parents or school masters who happened to be provided with first aid boxes. In the urban areas, one woman sub-assistant surgeon and two men sub-assistant surgeons with a few part-time workers undertook the work of medical examination. In the rural area, the inspection is carried out by the sub-assistant surgeon in charge of rural dispensaries. In October 1936, a representation was made by the Health Department to the various local authorities pointing out that the existing system of school medical service served no useful purpose and that school clinics should be established and a larger staff employed. The New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Notified Area Committee have agreed to open clinics. In Delhi city the problem presents greater difficulties as there is a large number of small schools scattered all over the city.

42. In this connection, the following remarks made in the Bengal Report are apposite :—“An ideal arrangement would be to have a well paid and whole-time medical officer attached to each school, but this appears to be almost a utopian scheme. But groups of schools can profitably join together to engage a medical officer for examining the health of the school children. The university could do a great deal if they insisted on the employment of a full-time or a part-time medical officer being one of the conditions of recognition of high schools.”¹

43. In any scheme of medical inspection the co-operation of school authorities and parents is essential. Teachers should carefully watch the physical welfare of the pupils under their charge and parents should not neglect to take prompt action in the case of a child in whom physical defects have been pointed out. Although some improvement is noticeable, the response and co-operation of the parents are still far from what they should be.

(xii) Junior Red Cross, and St. John's Ambulance Societies.

44. Mention may be made here of the Junior Red Cross and St. John's Ambulance Societies, which are doing very useful work in this direction.

The former in particular is making rapid headway. A feature worthy of note is the fact that the movement has now spread to girls' schools as well as boys', and during the last five years the girls' membership has risen from 3,556 to 33,468.

¹ Bengal, page 163.

The following table gives the total membership of the Junior Red Cross in the various provinces in British India and Indian States at the end of 1937.

TABLE CXXXVII.

Membership of the Junior Red Cross, 1937.

Name of Branch.	Number of groups.	Number of Members.		
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Madras ..	344	13,216	4,609	17,825
Bombay ..	57	2,690	1,232	3,922
Bengal ..	160	7,720	387	8,107
United Provinces..	5,025	105,831	4,392	110,223
Punjab ..	5,304	252,713	12,822	265,535
Bihar ..	19	401	5	406
Central Provinces and Berar ..	524	14,514	2,764	17,278
Assam ..	82	2,568	832	3,400
North-West Frontier Province ..	6	208	..	208
Sind ..	192	5,048	1,133	6,181
Delhi ..	111	10,148	1,346	11,494
Rajputana ..	14	374	55	429
Central India ..	5	212	36	248
Western Indian States Agency ..	9	410	449	859
Mysore ..	57	2,329	694	3,023
Jodhpur ..	92	2,166	2,340	4,526
Barela ..	47	2,356	301	2,657
Tiravancore ..	11
Kash ..	46	1,678	71	1,749
Total ..	12,105	424,602	33,468	458,070

In 1932, there were 3,781 groups with a total membership of 192,516. In 1937, the number of groups went up to 12,105 with a total membership of 458,070. The movement has now penetrated into all the provinces in British India and several Indian States.

The chief aims of the movement in schools are as follows :—

"The Indian Junior Red Cross is organized to inculcate the practice of health habits among school children and in others, to rouse the spirit of service and promote world friendliness. The school children look after their personal health by practising simple laws of health and making others do the same. Morning health parades, which include inspection of clothes, teeth and nails, are a routine procedure, and cleaning of those who are found dirty is a feature of the schools. Juniors maintain school hygiene by making themselves responsible for keeping class rooms, urinals, latrines and school compounds clean and tidy. They also keep a first aid cupboard under the supervision of a qualified First Aider and maintain a school vegetable garden.

It is an undisputed fact that the Junior Red Cross movement is now well established in most provinces and provides a valuable medium for practical health education in schools. There are signs that the continued emphasis on the practice of health rules is having a definite effect on the standard of cleanliness and hygiene while varied social service activities are educating the children in giving service to others."

(xiii) Educational broadcasting.

45. Educational broadcasting has been very successful in the West. There is no reason why in time it should not be successful in India. The Broadcasting Department, which came into existence on the 1st of April 1935, has always kept the educational aspect of its activities in view. At the end of the quinquennium, the Department laid down a tentative policy of educational broadcasting and invited suggestions from a number of educationists in India. It is as yet too early to say how far this policy will meet the requirements of educational institutions. Its development will be discussed in the subsequent Review ; but the prospects seem to be bright.
